ESSENTIALS OF AMERICAN HISTORY

LAWLER

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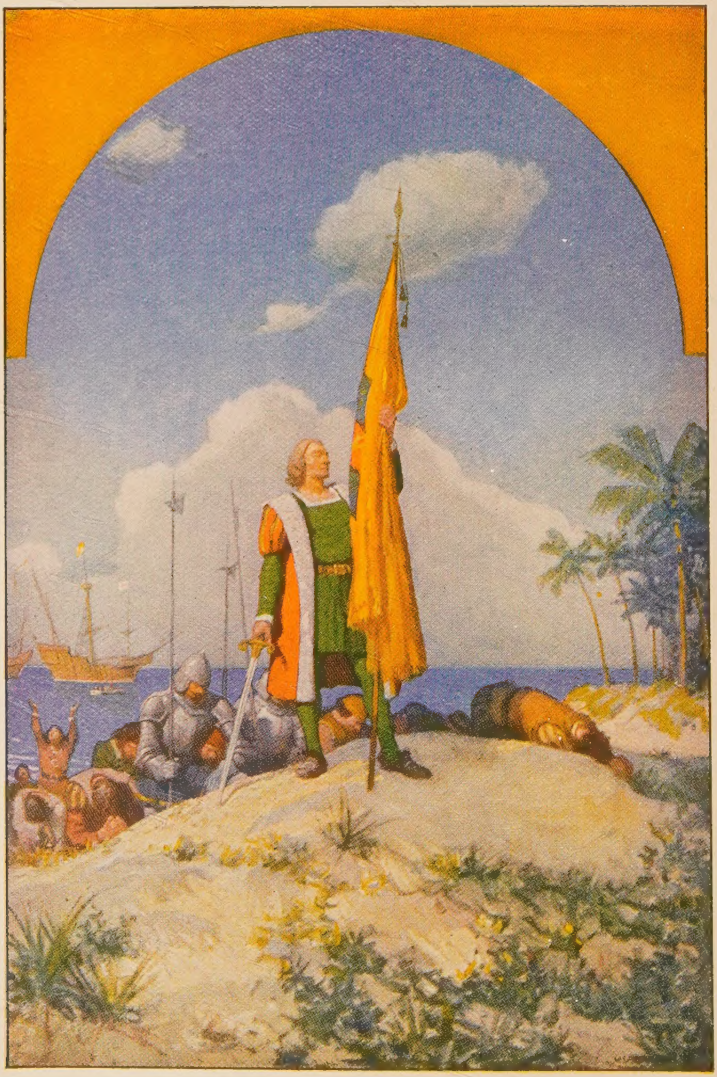

COLUMBUS LANDING IN THE NEW WORLD

ESSENTIALS OF AMERICAN HISTORY

BY

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WITH ILLUSTRATIONS IN COLORS BY

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"Let us raise a standard to which
the wise and the honest can repair;
the event is in the hand of God."

REVISED EDITION

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PREFACE TO THE REVISED EDITION

This work has been prepared to give as thorough a knowledge of the political, industrial, and territorial development of our country as the limits of a grammar-school textbook will allow. It endeavors to show the part played by all the elements, racial and religious, that have made contributions to American history.

The upbuilding of the United States is indeed a wonderful story. From the days of the Vikings onward the long procession of valiant Spanish, English, French, and Dutch voyagers, missionaries, and colonizers appears on its pages. The Indian tribes are seen in the woods or on the plains, along the rivers and on the Great Lakes. The scenes of our great historic actions were enacted on a stage made up of mighty areas, unrivaled waterways, primeval forests, boundless plains, and towering mountain systems. Through all the story we can see the slow development of a representative form of government, which, checked — now here and now there — by royal prerogative, at last burst its bonds and emerged a free people. While the path of progress of the Republic has ever led onward, it was not without, now and then, a mighty struggle, as in the great Civil War, when the nation had to decide whether a government constituted as it was would continue to exist. The Republic rendered its decision, and then and there entered on a career of advancement unequaled in the history of mankind.

In the last decade and a half many new viewpoints have been brought to light as the result of intensive study by historical scholars. To aid the pupil and teacher in making

use of at least a small part of this research, references to histories, to the sources, and to historical fiction have been given in the present volume. In addition, review questions are frequently presented. These questions are designed to compel thought and to aid in securing a better grasp of the causes and results of historical events.

The ever-widening share of the United States in world affairs has ushered in a broader national and historical viewpoint. The Atlantic and Pacific no longer bound our horizon; we are direct, active participants in affairs to the uttermost reaches of the world. This will be a sufficient reason for the larger treatment of European affairs. Every effort has been made to bring the entire work thoroughly in touch with the epoch-making events of to-day.

T. B. L.

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THE WORLD AS KNOWN IN THE TIME OF COLUMBUS

ESSENTIALS OF AMERICAN HISTORY

CHAPTER I

" During the Middle Ages the life of Europe and western Asia was still grouped about the Mediterranean. . . . Of all the changes which mark the transition from ancient and mediæval to modern history, none is so profound as that which has regrouped human life about the Atlantic as a new and grander central sea." — BOURNE, " Spain in America," p. 3

THE GREAT NAVIGATORS

1. Early Voyages to America. The Northmen. In very early days it is probable that America was visited by many people. There are vague reports of visits by Arabians, Chinese, Japanese,

MEDALLION OF ST. BRENDAN

Welsh, French, and Irish. On maps drawn as late as the sixteenth century we can see an island, marked St. Brendan's Isle[1]

[1] On old maps may be seen an island named Atlantis, which had been described by Plato four hundred years before Christ. Other islands which were believed to exist in the Atlantic Ocean were named Brazil and Antilla. For years English and Portuguese sailors sought these islands in vain.

after an Irish monk who was believed to have settled on an island in the middle of the Atlantic.

The first Europeans to visit North America of whom we have any actual historic records were the Northmen, or Norsemen. They were so named because they lived in the north of Europe, in Denmark, Norway, or Sweden. Some of these daring sailors in their dragon-shaped boats, without a compass and trusting to the stars, cruised along the coasts of Europe, entered the Mediterranean Sea, and even pushed as far east as the city of Constantinople; others sailed westward to Iceland, where they established prosperous settlements as early as the year 874. Trading was carried on between these colonies and the continent of Europe. About a century later (985) the Northmen began to build villages along the coast of Greenland, which in the meantime they had discovered.

A VIKING CHIEF
One of the Northmen

2. Leif Ericson discovers Vinland, A.D. 1000. The Norse spirit of adventure was not yet satisfied. About the year 1000 Leif Ericson[1] resolved to go westward in search of a land of which he had heard from Norse navigators. With thirty-five men he sailed from Greenland to the west and reached an unknown land, beautifully and thickly wooded. Cruising along the coast, he cast anchor in a favorable bay and, landing, called the country Vinland, from the large quantity of grapes, or perhaps wild cranberries, which he found there

[1] Leif Ericson (life er'ik son).

and from which a kind of wine was made. Ericson made no permanent settlement and left on our shores no record of his visit. The exact site of his landing has therefore never been discovered.[1] While these settlements were being made, Catholic missionaries had converted the people of Norway to Christianity. Among the converts was Leif Ericson, who had come from Greenland to Norway on a brief visit. On returning home he took priests with him, and Iceland and Greenland were soon converted to Christianity.[2] It is probable that two other voyages were made to the shores of Vinland, but at length these journeys ceased.[3] The explorations of the Northmen in Vinland produced no lasting effect even among the Northmen themselves, as no colonies were founded, and Vinland was soon forgotten.

3. Europe in the Fifteenth Century. The latter half of the fifteenth century is a period of the greatest importance in the world's history. France, which had been waging war with England for one hundred years, was at last at peace with that

[1] Leif Ericson is supposed to have landed in the vicinity of Narragansett Bay, but there is nothing to prove that this is true. For a time it was thought that the old mill at Newport, Rhode Island, was built by the Northmen. It is now known that it is a stone windmill built by Governor Arnold in early colonial days, probably about 1675. In his will Arnold writes about his "stone-built windmill." The Arnold family came from Leamington, England. Near this place is an old windmill built along the same lines as that of Newport. It was doubtless from this stone mill in England that Arnold got the plans for his mill here. The pupil should read Longfellow's "Skeleton in Armor." Although this poem is entirely incorrect in the facts of history, it gives a good idea of the spirit of the Norse voyagers.

[2] Early in the twelfth century Eric Gnupson was appointed Bishop of Gardar, a diocese in Greenland. For almost four hundred years the Church was maintained in this country, with a regular succession of bishops; but disasters befell the people. Pestilence swept away many of the colonists, Norway neglected her colony, and the settlements were attacked repeatedly by Eskimos and finally destroyed by them. The churches fell into decay, and at last all traces of Greenland passed from the knowledge of Europe.

[3] The stories of these voyages are told in the so-called "sagas," or tales, of Iceland. These sagas are partly true and partly fictitious, and it is difficult to tell what is truth and what is fiction.

country. She was at the beginning of a stronger and nobler national life — the opening of an era of remarkable progress. Spain had been gradually driving back the Moors,[1] who at one time held three quarters of the country. At this time only the extreme southern part remained in Moorish hands and Spain held the first place among European nations. The kings of France, Spain, England, and Portugal had during these years secured greater authority by reducing the armies of their nobles. With their strong royal power established, these kings were now ready to embark on enterprises beyond the limits of their kingdoms.

A VENETIAN GALLEY

4. The Two Routes to the Indies. At this period the trade of Europe was largely with the East, and was in the hands of two Italian city republics, Genoa and Venice. This trade was especially valuable, as the East supplied Europe with dyestuffs, shawls, spices, precious stones, ivory, and silks. In exchange the East secured from the West woolen goods, metals, and minerals. The Genoese, taking the so-called northern route, sailed to Constantinople. From this great city their vessels sailed northward and crossed the Black Sea to meet the caravans that came overland from the East. The Venetians controlled the southern route, with Alexandria in Egypt as their chief port. This route through the Red Sea and the Indian Ocean was, of course, almost entirely by water.

[1] The Moors were Mohammedan Arabs. From Arabia they had overrun Asia as far east as India and had also conquered northern Africa. In 711 they entered Spain, overthrew its kings, and for almost eight hundred years ruled a large part of the country.

A middle route led by way of Antioch, Damascus, and Bagdad through the valley of the Tigris and Euphrates rivers to the Persian Gulf. After reaching Genoa or Venice large quantities of the Eastern goods were sent northward through the passes of the Alps to northern Europe.

5. The Fall of Constantinople. The wealth of this trade was so great that the two republics of Genoa and Venice for two hundred years waged bitter warfare for the supremacy of the sea.

ROUTES OF TRADE BETWEEN INDIA AND CITIES OF SOUTHERN EUROPE

In 1453 a great disaster occurred in the East. A barbaric Tartar tribe, called the Ottoman Turks, that had overrun Asia Minor for two hundred years, and for a century had been established in southeastern Europe, appeared before the walls of Constantinople. They besieged the mighty city with two hundred thousand men, and it fell in 1453 after a short resistance. The cross, the emblem of Christianity, on the church of St. Sophia was replaced by the crescent, the emblem of Mohammedanism. Thus the gateway to the Black Sea was in the hands of the barbaric Turks, the route of the Genoese

traders was closed, and commerce by the Venetian route through Alexandria was made extremely difficult and unprofitable by the levy of excessive transit dues in Egypt. To add to the disasters and dangers, Turkish pirates infested the Mediterranean Sea, seizing the vessels of the Christians and killing the crews or selling them into slavery.

6. Knowledge of the East. The Franciscans. Men now sought anxiously a new route to the Indies and China. While the people of western Europe had some knowledge of oriental lands, it was rather vague, as the trade with the East had been carried on by means of middlemen. Through the Crusades,[1] as early as the eleventh century, the people of western Europe had become acquainted with the lands bordering the eastern Mediterranean and with the peoples beyond as far as India. They had also developed a need for the goods of Eastern lands, especially silks, spices, and luxuries of all kinds.

A CRUSADER

Another source of knowledge was the travelers who related the stories of their travels in the East. In the middle of the thirteenth century Franciscan priests had visited the Great Khan, or emperor, of China and had told the people of Europe of the great ocean which formed, they declared, the eastern boundary of Asia.

7. Marco Polo. In 1295 Marco Polo, a Venetian merchant, returned with his father and uncle to his native city after an

[1] The Crusades were eight great religious military expeditions which for about two hundred years (1096–1270) were led against the Mohammedan Turks to recover the sacred places of the Holy Land. Although, after severe hardships and terrible loss of life, they failed finally to drive out the Turk, they had a marked influence in giving Europe a knowledge of western Asia and its peoples and in developing trade.

absence of twenty-four years. He had spent these long years in traveling in the East, going overland through Asia to farthest China, where he lived for seventeen years at the court of the Great Khan near the present great city of Peking. He returned by water around southern Asia to the Persian Gulf and thence overland to his native city. When he and his two companions arrived no one knew them after so many years. Their clothes were ragged and worn. Presently they drew forth precious stones and gold of great value and related the story of their wonderful exploits. In a book which appeared later (1299) Marco Polo described India and China, and told of what he had heard of the island of Cipango, probably Japan, as well as of the marvelous riches of the East. This book was destined to have a wide influence, as it aroused in the middle of the fifteenth century a great interest in geography when men needed to find new commercial routes.

8. Great Inventions. About this time there were four great inventions. The first was that of printing with movable type, about 1454, "the most important discovery," says Hallam,[1] "recorded in the annals of mankind." Up to this time books had been slowly written by hand with the pen.[2] Through this invention it was possible to print books cheaply and quickly. These printed books sent broadcast information about the discoveries of the past and gave a marked stimulus to the study of geography and history.

The development of the compass and astrolabe[3] were epoch-making events. These instruments, simpler forms of which had been in use for centuries, enabled men to take long

[1] Hallam, The Middle Ages, Vol. III, p. 183.

[2] In the monasteries was a room called the scriptorium. In this room the monks by slow handwork copied the books of ancient learning and preserved them to the world. In connection with the monasteries were schools where boys were taught.

[3] The astrolabe was used in navigation for taking the altitude of the sun and stars above the horizon. Its place was later taken by the quadrant and the sextant.

voyages in safety out of sight of land, as they could now know fairly accurately the true position of their vessels at sea.

Another very important invention was gunpowder, which in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries changed entirely the nature of warfare and finally rendered the castles of the feudal nobles useless as fortresses. The foot soldier with his gun was now more powerful than the knight on horseback with his lance or spear.

While these great inventions were being developed, Genoa and Venice were studying plans to find a new route to the Indies and the Spice Islands[1] which would avoid entirely the power of the Turks. No one, however, was successful until the great discoverer Christopher Columbus announced his belief in a *westward* route to the Indies.[2]

9. Christopher Columbus. Christopher Columbus was born about 1446 in the city of Genoa, which was at this time the center of seafaring life. He was the son of a humble weaver, and in the midst of the sailor life around him developed an earnest love of the sea. It is said, upon rather doubtful authority however, that he attended the University of Pavia for two years, where he studied Latin, geography, astronomy, mathematics, and drawing. At the age of fourteen he became a sailor, voyaging far to the south till he had reached the equator and northward even to Iceland. For twenty-three years he lived the perilous life of the mariner — at times fighting the pirates of the Mediterranean, at times battling with the Turks.

[1] "It is hard for us to understand this enthusiasm for spices, for which we care much less nowadays. One former use for spices was to preserve food, which could not then as now be carried rapidly, while still fresh, from place to place; nor did our conveniences then exist for keeping it by the use of ice. Moreover, spice served to make even spoiled food more palatable than it would otherwise have been." — ROBINSON, "Introduction to the History of Western Europe," p. 350

[2] "The discovery of the New World was the direct result of European interest in the Far East, an incident in the charting of new highways for the world's commerce." — BECKER, "Beginnings of the American People," p. 2

About 1473 he reached Lisbon in Portugal. Through the zeal of Prince Henry the Navigator[1] this city was at that time the chief center of the spirit of discovery in Europe. The sailors excited the interest of the people by the tales of their perilous journeys along the west coast of Africa; the state spent large sums of money in spreading geographical knowledge; the African slave trade offered large profits; and the science of navigation was studied in an earnest endeavor to find a new and shorter route to the Indies. Columbus suggested a solution of this problem.

CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS

10. Columbus proposes to sail West. "The world is round, quite like a ball," said Columbus, "and by sailing directly west you can reach the East Indies and Spice Islands." At that time people in general believed the earth to be flat, but astronomers and other learned men knew and taught that it was round. They had watched the vessels sink beneath the horizon; they had seen the shadow of the earth in the eclipse of the moon; and they showed that

[1] Prince Henry the Navigator was a son of King John I of Portugal. Under Henry's direction expeditions were sent southward along the west coast of Africa. Henry died in 1460, but his work was carried on by other members of the royal family. In the exploration of the coast of Africa, however, the Italian sailors had preceded the Portuguese by many years.

the old Grecian philosophers and astronomers had declared the world to be round. Columbus studied the subject deeply and read as many books as he could secure. He had often heard that strange objects had been washed ashore on the Cape Verde Islands and other places by the waves of the Atlantic — pieces of carved wood, huge trunks of pine trees, gigantic reeds, and the bodies of two copper-colored men.[1] Columbus declared that two thirds of the world had been already explored, that is, from the eastern borders of Asia, by Marco Polo, to the Azores in the Atlantic Ocean, by the Portuguese.[2] Only three or four thousand miles of ocean would have to be crossed, he believed, to reach the Indies. Columbus had reckoned the size of the world to be about two thirds as large as it really is, an error common to men at that time.

11. Motives of Columbus. Columbus was deeply religious. While he had made earnest studies in the sciences, the leading motive of his life was the hope of seeing the Catholic religion believed by all the peoples of the world. He desired to spread the truths of the Gospel among the heathen nations and to plant the Cross in distant lands.[3]

[1] While in Lisbon, Columbus had earned a living by making maps and charts. He himself says, "God hath given me a genius and hands apt to draw his globe and on it the cities, rivers, islands, and ports — all in their proper places." In 1474 he wrote, it is believed, to a great Florentine geographer, Toscanelli, for a map which Toscanelli had made, showing the route to Asia and Japan. The map was sent with a letter of explanation, saying, "So through the unknown parts of the route the stretches of sea to be traversed are not great." This map would have been singularly correct had not the continent of America been directly in the way. On this map we can see the mythical islands Antilla, Brazil, and St. Brendan's Isle. These would serve, it was thought, as stepping-stones to the Indies, and it is fortunate that they were believed to exist.

[2] Many believed the legend that monsters lived in the Atlantic and would devour anyone venturing far into that ocean. It was also declared that a great belt of heat would consume any vessel sailing to the far south. Columbus rejected these beliefs as nonsensical.

[3] "He freely asserted his conviction that he had been chosen by God from his earliest years to carry out two great undertakings: the discovery of a westward route to the Indies and, as a crusader, to recover the Holy Sepulchre from the Turks." — TARDUCCI, "Columbus" (edited by Brownson), p. 215

In 1481 John II ascended the throne of Portugal and Columbus unfolded to him his plans. The king referred them to a learned council of his court, but they were rejected.

In despair Columbus now left Portugal. It is thought he visited Genoa and Venice, but both of these republics rejected his plans.

12. He seeks the Aid of Spain. He finally started for Spain to seek the aid of Ferdinand and Isabella. In 1486 he arrived at the royal court in Cordova. At this time Spain was preparing for the last battles against the Moors, and the preparations for the war and the excitement of the times delayed his reception by the king and queen. Finally, through the aid of Cardinal Mendoza, he was invited to appear before them and to unfold his plans for the new route to Asia. The Spanish sovereigns called a council of learned men in the city of Salamanca[1] to examine the charts and plans. They rejected the scheme as visionary. At length in 1491, five years after his arrival, Columbus resolved to leave Spain[2] and seek the aid of France. With his little son Diego[3] he started on his dreary journey.

13. Columbus and Queen Isabella. A short distance from Palos[4] Columbus saw the Franciscan monastery of La Rábida.[5] Footsore and hungry he asked for aid and had the good fortune to meet the prior, Father Juan Pérez,[6] who was the confessor of Queen Isabella. He listened eagerly to the story of Columbus and believed so fully in his projects that he wrote to the queen at once. A short time later he went to the court and

[1] It is said this council met at the famous University of Salamanca. There is, however, no record of such a meeting in the archives of the university.

[2] So well known but so little understood was Columbus that the boys ran after him in the streets and called him a madman.

[3] Diego (dee ay'go).

[4] Palos (pah'loce).

[5] La Rábida (lah rah'bee dah). The full name of the monastery was Santa María de la Rábida, or St. Mary of the Frontier, as it was less than thirty miles from the boundary of Portugal.

[6] Juan Pérez (whan pay'rayth).

persuaded the queen to accept the proposal of Columbus,[1] who was now recalled.[2] At last his plans were accepted and he was ready to prepare for his great voyage.

14. Beginning of the Great Voyage. Many difficulties still beset the daring navigator. Sailors were afraid to cross unknown seas, a distance of two thousand five hundred miles,[3] as Columbus believed; inhabited, they had been informed, by fearful monsters. After great efforts he gathered ninety men for his three small vessels, which he called the *Santa María*,[4] the *Pinta*, and the *Niña*. On the third of August, 1492, all was ready for the great journey. At sunrise, while the whole population crowded the shore, Columbus received the final blessing of his devoted friend, the prior of La Rábida, hoisted sail, and with his three little vessels went forth on the most momentous journey of history.

[1] In return for the service he would render, Columbus was to be made viceroy and governor-general of any lands he might discover, and was to receive one tenth of the profits of any expedition as well as of the pearls, gold, and other valuables found. Columbus vowed to devote his fortune to the rescue of the Holy Sepulcher from the Turks. No mention is made in the contract of any route to the Indies.

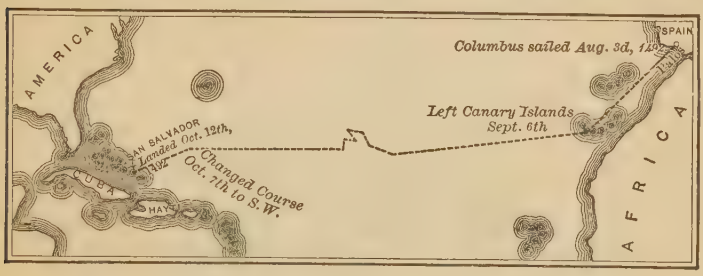
[2] In his efforts Columbus was especially aided by Cardinal Mendoza, Bishop Deza, the Duke of Medinaceli, and Talavera, afterward Archbishop of Granada.

Washington Irving, in his "Life of Columbus," says that Isabella "was one of the purest spirits that ever ruled over the destinies of a nation. . . . Her fair name will ever shine with celestial radiance in the dawning of" the history of America. The pupil might well study with care the wonderful picture by Brozik of Columbus before Isabella. The original is in the Metropolitan Museum of Art in New York City. A copy can be obtained in the Perry Pictures or similar school aids.

[3] It is indeed fortunate that Columbus did not know how far away India really was. Had he known it was ten thousand miles distant from Spain, it would probably have been impossible to secure ships and men even if he himself would have had the courage to face such a journey.

[4] The *Santa María* (mah ree'ah), the largest vessel, was single-decked and was the flagship of Columbus. Neither the *Pinta* (peen'tah) nor the *Niña* (neen'yah) was decked amidships. The cost of the expedition was about eighty thousand dollars in the money of to-day. Columbus paid about one eighth of the cost and the crown of Castile the remainder from money loaned by the Holy Brotherhood (Santa Hermandad) through its treasurers, Santangel and Pinelo.

15. Perils of the Journey. The first point reached was the Canary Islands, where they were delayed three weeks for repairs. On the sixth of September they sailed directly westward, and the sailors were terrified as the land disappeared behind them, leaving only the unknown waste of waters around them on every side. New terrors constantly arose. They feared they might meet the monsters said to inhabit these regions; they believed if the world were round they could not sail up its sides again. Columbus had to cheer their spirits, overcome their fears, and rule with a firm hand the crews, who might



MAP OF COLUMBUS'S ROUTE ON HIS FIRST VOYAGE

otherwise have become mutinous.[1] Day after day they sailed westward, borne onward by the strong trade winds and the ocean currents. This constant easterly trade wind caused grave fears in the minds of the sailors, as they believed they could not

[1] On October 7 Pinzón, noticing a flock of birds flying to the southwest, believed these birds were headed toward land and urged Columbus to change his course in that direction. As the Portuguese had made many discoveries by following the flight of birds, Columbus finally consented. It is probable, had he not made this change, he would have drifted with the Gulf Stream northward and sighted the stormy coasts of the Carolinas instead of the Bahamas. By making this change in his course he had only five hundred miles to travel before land was sighted; had he continued on a straight course, at least seven hundred miles would have had to be covered and dire results might have arisen from mutiny and other causes. Another important result would have been that Spanish colonization would have been established on our Atlantic seaboard in a temperate climate instead of in the tropical West Indies and Central America.

return against it. They also noticed that the compass changed its direction to the west of the true north, which was to them another bad omen. Fortunately after about four weeks they saw signs indicating that land must be near, and on the evening of October 11, 1492, Columbus saw a moving light in the distance. On the following morning the welcome cry, "Land!" arose. A new world had been discovered.

16. The Landing of Columbus, October 12, 1492. Holding in his hand the banner of Spain, Columbus landed on the shore and took possession in the name of the Spanish sovereigns, Ferdinand and Isabella. He called the land San Salvador

VESSELS OF COLUMBUS CROSSING THE OCEAN

(Holy Redeemer).[1] It was one of the Bahamas, perhaps Watling Island. The natives were unlike any people he had ever seen. Believing he had reached the East Indies, he called the natives Indians. He now sailed southwestward and quickly reached the large island of Cuba. Changing his course to the eastward, he reached the island of Haiti, which he named Española, or Hispaniola. Here his best vessel, the *Santa María*, was wrecked. Desiring to return to Spain, he built here a fort, and, leaving a small colony of about forty men, sailed on his homeward journey.

[1] "To the first [island] I discovered, I gave the name of San Salvador, in commemoration of His Divine Majesty, who has wonderfully granted all this." — Letter of Columbus to Santangel

17. Return of Columbus. After a stormy voyage he reached the coast of Europe, where he was obliged on account of severe storms to seek shelter in the harbor of Lisbon (March 4). The king of Portugal received him with marked honor and furnished him with everything he needed to finish his journey. Columbus arrived at Palos on March 15, 1493. The fame of his wonderful discoveries spread far and wide, aided by the newly discovered printing press. He was summoned to Barcelona to the presence of the king and queen and was received in triumph. He presented to them some of the wonders of the New World — gold, birds, beasts, plants, and a few Indians whom he had brought back with him. A solemn Mass and Te Deum were sung in thanksgiving for his great achievements, and the king and queen fell on their knees in homage to God for the benefits granted to their kingdom. On Columbus were showered most signal honors. He was appointed admiral and the king's viceroy in the New World.

18. Later Voyages of Columbus. In September, 1493, only six months after his return, he set out once more across the Western seas. This expedition was made up of seventeen ships. They were loaded with horses, cows, vines, tools, fruit trees, and seeds for use in the New World. Those who had scoffed at his first voyage now sought to accompany him on his second journey. He founded a colony on the present island of Haiti and discovered Jamaica, Porto Rico, and the islands of the Caribbean Sea.[1] Five years later (1498) he made a third voyage, discovering the island of Trinidad, the mainland of South America, and the mouth of the Orinoco River. His efforts to find a way into the Indian Ocean had been unsuccessful.

[1] After the settlements in the islands had been made, the unfortunate natives, by a system of slavery, were kept by the Spaniards in the mines at hard labor until they perished by thousands. Bartolomé de las Casas, the noble Dominican, with all his power tried to better the condition of the natives. In this noble work he was assisted by Father Antonio Montesino, another Dominican. The names of Las Casas and Montesino will ever be remembered by those whose hearts beat for a suffering humanity.

The popular discontent at the failure to find gold increased daily, and the cost of the voyages was so great that the court lost interest in him.[1]

He made one more attempt. In 1502 he sailed westward, visiting Honduras and the Isthmus of Panama. He died unnoticed in Valladolid on May 20, 1506. To the hour of his death he believed he had reached Asia by the best and most direct route. He never knew he had given to mankind a new world.

19. John Cabot's Voyage. In the meantime the discoveries of Columbus stirred other adventurous spirits. There resided in England an Italian, John Cabot by name, who was commissioned by Henry VII, king of England, to seek a northern route to the Spice Islands for the spice trade. Cabot sailed from Bristol in May, 1497, with a single vessel and discovered the continent of America, probably on the coast of Labrador, June 24. Believing he had discovered Asia, he landed and, erecting a large cross bearing aloft the flag of England, claimed the entire country in behalf of the English king. A year later, in April, 1498, with his son Sebastian Cabot, he returned and explored the coast as far south, perhaps, as Cape Hatteras. These voyages are most important, as they gave England a claim to the Atlantic seaboard and the right to colonize North America. One hundred years were allowed to pass, however, before a permanent settlement was made, as the English at this time were more interested in the affairs of Europe.

20. Division of the World. After the return of Columbus from his great voyage Spain and Portugal began to disagree

[1] While Columbus was trying to establish orderly government in his colony in Santo Domingo, a new governor arrived from Spain, who arrested him on false charges and sent him home in chains. The captain of the ship desired to remove the irons; but Columbus refused, and wore them till he reached the port. Queen Isabella cordially received the old admiral and with tears in her eyes bestowed honors upon him. Full justice was not done him, however, as he never again obtained in full the powers granted in his contract.

as to the ownership of lands yet to be discovered. As both of these countries professed the Catholic faith, the matter was referred to His Holiness Pope Alexander VI by the sovereigns of the two nations. To settle the conflicting claims the Pope[1] finally divided the world by an imaginary line drawn very nearly midway through the Atlantic one hundred leagues west of the Azores and the Cape Verde Islands. He granted to Portugal all pagan lands discovered by the Portuguese east of this line and to Spain all pagan lands[2] west of it. The king of Portugal was not satisfied with this line, and in 1494[3] it was moved to a distance of three hundred and seventy leagues west of the Cape Verde Islands. This change later gave Brazil to Portugal.

MAP SHOWING THE DIVISION OF THE WORLD MADE IN 1494

[1] "As between the Christian nations, the Sovereign Pontiff was the supreme arbiter of conflicting claims; hence the famous bull issued by Pope Alexander VI in 1493." — WHEATON, "Elements of International Law," Vol. II, chap. iv

At this time practically the entire Christian world was in communion with the See of Rome, and all the early great discoverers — Columbus, Cabot, Vespucius, Da Gama, Magellan, Cabral, and Balboa — were Catholics.

[2] Franciscan missionaries came with Columbus to the New World. From time to time their numbers were increased, until they had preached the Gospel from Florida to the Pacific and from the Colorado to Patagonia.

[3] This was the so-called treaty of Tordesillas. As a matter of fact neither Spain nor Portugal was ever satisfied with this demarcation line. Twenty-seven years later, when Magellan's expedition reached the Philippines and the Moluccas, the question became acute as to whether, if the demarcation line were continued through the poles around the earth for the full perimeter of the circle, these lands would belong to Portugal or Spain. In 1529 the king of Portugal, to clear his title to the Moluccas, paid Charles V of Spain three hundred and fifty thousand ducats (equal to about eight hundred and twenty-five thousand dollars) for any rights Spain might claim in the Moluccas. Spain was allowed to keep the Philippines, as spices did not grow there. Even after this settlement there was constant friction until the boundaries of the Philippines in the East and Brazil in the West were amicably adjusted in 1779.

21. Voyage of Vasco da Gama to India. Cabral's Journey. Meantime the Portuguese had not been idle. Bartholomew Díaz[1] in 1486 reached the Cape of Good Hope. In 1497, five years after the discovery of America, the Portuguese found their long-coveted route around Africa, when Vasco da Gama rounded the Cape of Good Hope and reached India (1498) after a voyage of ten months. The following year he returned in triumph with his vessels laden with spices, silks, bronzes, ivory, and precious stones. Da Gama had found the sea route which Columbus had sought in vain.[2] This discovery proved that Africa was a continent. It turned the attention of European navigators to the new route to the Indies, and for some time no further voyages were made to North America.

Within a few months, however, in 1500, a Portuguese navigator, Cabral,[3] sailed with a fleet of thirteen ships for India. He put out boldly to sea and drifted so far from the African coast that, to his amazement, he saw land to the west one April morning in the year 1500. It was that part of the coast of South America now called Brazil. If it were east of the Line of Demarcation, it belonged to Portugal. He soon discovered that it was east, and sent a vessel back to Lisbon with the news of his good fortune.[4]

22. Americus Vespucius. The king of Portugal acted promptly, fitting out a fleet of three ships in May, 1501. With the expedition sailed a Florentine merchant and traveler, Americus Vespucius.[5] The fleet reached South America at Cape St. Roque, in Brazil, and skirted the coast as far south as the La Plata River. It later turned southeastward to keep

[1] Díaz (dee'ahth).

[2] In his epic poem called "The Lusiad" Camoens sings the glory of Da Gama and other Portuguese explorers and colonizers.

[3] Cabral (cah brahl').

[4] Cabral named the country Santa Cruz, or Holy Cross. It was later named Brazil from the dyewood found there.

[5] Americus Vespucius (a mer'i cus ves pu'cius) is a Latinized form of the navigator's name, the Italian form being Amerigo Vespucci (ah may ree'go ves poot'chee).

east of the Line of Demarcation, and sailed until the Antarctic ice fields blocked its way, when it returned to Lisbon.

23. The Name of America. Vespucius made another voyage to the southern continent, and in 1504 published an account of what he had seen in the New World. His voyages were of great importance. They proved the existence of a new continent, secured Brazil for the Portuguese crown, and resulted in giving the name America to the Western Hemisphere. A copy of a letter which he had written on the New World fell into the hands of a German, Martin Waldseemüller,[1] a teacher of geography in a little college at St. Dié,[2] in eastern France. In 1507 the letter of Vespucius was printed by the college press as an appendix to a new edition of a geography. The geography contained the suggestion that the newly found land should be named America in honor of Americus Vespucius, as Waldseemüller supposed Vespucius had discovered it.[3] The name was placed on the maps of that time; at first it was given only to Brazil, later to South America, and still later to the whole Western Hemisphere.[4] Thus Columbus was deprived of the great honor of having his name given to the new world he had discovered.

24. Discovery of the Pacific Ocean, 1513. In the year 1513 Balboa, a Spanish planter and adventurer, set forth to repair his broken fortunes by seeking the wealth of the New World. While exploring the Isthmus of Panama, he was told by an Indian chief of a great sea to the west beyond the mountains and of lands whose shores were filled with gold and silver. Balboa thereupon pushed eagerly onward and, gaining the crest

[1] Waldseemüller (valt'zay muhl ler).

[2] St. Dié (san dee ay').

[3] Waldseemüller dropped the name "America" from his globe in 1513, when he learned the real facts, and called South America by the name "Terra Incognita" (Unknown Land).

[4] Mercator, the Flemish geographer, was the first to apply the name to the entire continent of America. The first geography of America was issued by Enciso at Saragossa, Spain, in 1519.

of the heavily wooded ridge, saw before him the Pacific, the greatest of the oceans. "Falling on his knees," says Helps, "he gave thanks to God" for the great discovery. On reaching the shore he waded into the sea and claimed possession of this vast body of water, together with all the bordering lands, for the crown of Spain. As the sea was south of the Isthmus of Panama, where he stood, he called it the South Sea. Balboa little dreamed that the great ocean he was looking upon stretched ten thousand miles westward to the shores of Asia.

25. The Voyage of Magellan, 1519. Six years later a native of Portugal, Ferdinand Magellan, having had some differences with his king, offered his services to the king of Spain. He declared he could find a shorter route to the rich Spice Islands than was known to the world. A fleet of five ships was fitted out and sailed westward. Believing that there existed south of the La Plata River a passage which would lead to the South Sea, Magellan skirted the coast of South America. Thirteen months after leaving Spain he discovered and entered the strait that has since borne his name. He soon reached the great waste of waters named by Balboa the South Sea; he named it the Pacific because it was so calm. Sailing across this broad ocean, after incredible hardships, he discovered (March 16, 1521) the islands to which later the name Philippines was given in honor of Philip II of Spain. In an encounter with the natives of the Philippines, Magellan soon lost his life.

26. Results of Magellan's Voyage. The journey was continued under one of Magellan's captains, Sebastián del Cano.[1] He rounded the Cape of Good Hope in the only vessel that remained out of the five and reached Spain in 1522, bearing with him Magellan's written report of the expedition as far as the Philippines and also a map of the route. This was the first voyage around the world. It proved beyond question five great facts: (1) that the world was round; (2) that, contrary to

[1] Sebastián del Cano (say bahs tee ahn' del cah'no).

MAP SHOWING ROUTES OF EIGHT IMPORTANT VOYAGES

general belief, the area of the water far exceeded that of the land of the globe; (3) that South America was a continent;[1] (4) that a great ocean lay between America and Asia; (5) that Columbus had discovered not Asia, but a new world.

SUMMARY

In A.D. 1000 Leif Ericson, with a party of Northmen, visited the coast of New England. No permanent settlements were made and the Norse voyages were soon forgotten.

The Portuguese under Prince Henry the Navigator made many voyages down the west coast of Africa. Under the lead of Bartholomew Díaz they reached the Cape of Good Hope in 1486. Vasco da Gama arrived in India in 1498. This voyage determined the first all-water route to the East.

In 1492 Christopher Columbus, an Italian, sailing under the flag of Spain, in trying to find a westward route to the Indies, discovered America. He made the following discoveries on his four voyages:

First voyage, 1492: the Bahamas, Cuba, and Haiti (Española).

Second voyage, 1493: the islands of the Caribbean Sea, Porto Rico, and Jamaica.

Third voyage, 1498: Trinidad, mainland of South America, mouth of the Orinoco River.

Fourth voyage, 1502: coast of Central America, Isthmus of Panama.

In 1497 John Cabot, an Italian, sailing under the patronage of England, discovered the mainland of North America. This discovery gave Great Britain a title to this country.

In 1504 Americus Vespucius, an Italian, after a number of voyages to the New World, wrote a description of what he had seen. His letters led to his name being given to the Western Hemisphere.

In 1513 Balboa, a Spaniard, explored the Isthmus of Panama and discovered the Pacific Ocean.

In 1519 Magellan began his voyage under the flag of Spain. He found the strait, named for him, sailed around the southern part of South America, crossed the Pacific Ocean, and discovered the

[1] In 1728 Bering, a Danish navigator, discovered the strait that bears his name and for the first time proved that America was really detached from Asia

Philippine Islands. One of his vessels returned around the world by way of the Cape of Good Hope. This voyage proved that the world was a globe and that America was a continent.[1]

Dates to be remembered:

1000 (A.D.). The Northmen reach America.
1492. Discovery of America by Columbus.
1497. John Cabot discovers North America.
1519. Beginning of Magellan's voyage.

Important dates for reference:

1453. Turks capture Constantinople.
1454. Probable date of invention of printing.
1494. Line of Demarcation.
1507. America receives its name.

Persons to know about:

Leif Ericson, Marco Polo, Columbus, John Cabot, Vasco da Gama, Americus Vespucius, Balboa, Magellan.

Map work:

Look up on a map Norway, Sweden, Denmark, Iceland, Greenland, Labrador, Genoa, Venice, Constantinople, Lisbon, Cape of Good Hope, Isthmus of Panama, Strait of Magellan, the Philippine Islands.

Trace on a map the first voyage of Columbus.

REVIEW EXAMINATION

1. Give an account of Europeans who are said to have visited the Western continent several centuries before Columbus.

2. Before the discovery of America what was the general belief in regard to (*a*) the shape of the earth? (*b*) the size of the earth? Show how one of these beliefs was a hindrance to Columbus.

[1] No American should ever forget the debt of gratitude we owe to Spain for her early efforts in discovering and civilizing America. "The Spanish . . . built the first cities, opened the first churches, schools and universities; brought the first printing presses, made the first books, wrote the first dictionaries, histories and geographies. . . . By 1575, nearly a century before there was a printing press in English America, many books in twelve different Indian languages had been printed in the City of Mexico . . . and three Spanish universities in America were nearly rounding out their century when Harvard was founded."— C. F. LUMMIS, "The Spanish Pioneers," p 23

3. Explain why the invention of the mariner's compass aided the discovery and exploration of the New World.

4. Describe two trade routes between Europe and Asia in the fifteenth century and show why other routes were sought.

5. Give an account of the early life of Columbus. State how he obtained his knowledge of the sea and how he came to believe in a shorter route to India.

6. Describe the first voyage of Columbus to America, mentioning (*a*) one motive that prompted him to attempt the journey; (*b*) one difficulty that he encountered in securing aid; (*c*) the place where he landed in America; (*d*) the people that he found.

7. Name the principal lands that Columbus discovered on each of his four voyages.

8. Mention three navigators who made explorations in the New World soon after its discovery by Columbus, and name the particular territory explored by each.

9. What explorer laid the foundation for England's colonial empire?

10. Give an account of the first voyage around the globe. State (*a*) what it proved in regard to America; (*b*) the direction in which it turned the attention of explorers.

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CHAPTER II

"The achievements of the Conquistadores have scarcely a parallel in the annals of conquest." — BECKER, "Beginnings of the American People," p. 31

THE EXPLORERS

I. Spanish Explorations

27. Europe and the New World. At the beginning of the sixteenth century Spain, Portugal, England, France, and Holland were the leading nations of Europe, and it was of course probable that they would all soon seek a share of the vast territory of the New World. Under the law of nations it was necessary, however, to colonize lands as well as discover them, if a lasting title was to be obtained. Because of the discovery of Columbus, Spain at this time led in the work of exploration, and the Spaniards, to secure the territory of the New World, began a series of expeditions to the newly discovered country.

28. Ponce de León, 1513. The first Spanish expedition into North America was led by Ponce de León,[1] a Spanish nobleman who had accompanied Columbus on his second voyage and had later been governor of the island of Porto Rico. Hearing from the Indians of a country to the north of the Bahamas which possessed large quantities of gold, he formed plans to explore and colonize it. The Indians also told him, it is said, of a spring or fountain which would restore youth to the aged.[2] He sailed from Porto Rico in March, 1513, and reached on

[1] Ponce de León (pon'thay day lay ohn').

[2] While this is the general opinion, it is interesting to note that there is no mention whatever of this spring in the charter granted to Ponce de León for this enterprise by the king of Spain.

Easter Sunday the southeast coast of North America, near the present site of the city of St. Augustine. He called the land Florida, from Pascua Florida,[1] the Spanish name for Easter. After cruising around the peninsula he returned to Porto Rico. Eight years later (1521) he sailed to make a permanent settlement, taking with him missionaries. The expedition was attacked by the Indians. Ponce de León himself was mortally wounded and was brought to Cuba, where he soon died.[2] This was the first attempt to found a colony within the present limits of the United States, and it ended in disaster.

29. The Conquest of Mexico, 1519. The Spanish voyagers had heard stories from time to time of an Indian confederacy, the Aztecs,[3] in Mexico, and an expedition under Hernando Cortés[4] set out from Cuba to conquer their country. Landing on the site of the present city of Vera Cruz in the spring of 1519, with only four hundred and fifty men, Cortés started on his march of more than two hundred miles through an unknown country filled with hostile foes.[5] The Aztecs had won the undying hate of neighboring tribes because of their cruelty, a fact that saved Cortés and his little band. He soon made an alliance with the enemies of the Aztecs, and after two years of desperate fighting, in which the Spaniards suffered many

[1] Pascua Florida (pahs'quah flo ree'dah). In Spanish, Florida is accented Flori'da. For years Florida was the name given by the Spaniards to all the country claimed by them north of the Gulf of Mexico.

[2] He was later buried in San Juan, Porto Rico. In 1911 his remains were removed to the San Juan Cathedral, where they now rest.

[3] The Aztec Confederacy consisted of three tribes. The Aztecs had no domestic animals except the dog, and did not know the use of iron. With revolting cruelty they offered human sacrifices of prisoners whom they had captured, and hence they were feared and hated outside their own territory. The descriptions so often given of the "empire of the Montezumas" are misleading, as no such empire existed.

[4] Hernando Cortés (air nahn'doh cor tace').

[5] To prevent a rebellion among his troops, he sank all his ships. The only hope of safety for the men now lay in conquering the country. Cortés was helped by the tradition among the Aztecs that a white god would some day come out of the west. When the Spanish ships with their white sails appeared the natives believed the long promised deity had arrived.

reverses, the power of the Aztecs was broken and Spain took possession of the country. Here was established the first Spanish colony on the mainland of North America.[1]

30. De Ayllón's Expedition, 1526. While the voyage of Magellan had shown a westward water route around the southern end of South America, it was too long and dangerous a journey for ships to take. A search was therefore made for a waterway through the continent in higher latitudes. De Ayllón, a Spanish judge in Santo Domingo, determined to seek this strait and also plant a colony on the Atlantic coast. Sailing northward, in June, 1526, with three vessels, containing six hundred colonists,[2] he reached the James River. He called his colony San Miguel[3] (St. Michael). The terrible winter that followed killed many of the colonists; others were tomahawked by the Indians; mutinies arose on every hand; and De Ayllón himself died in October, 1526. In the following spring the survivors, one hundred and fifty in number, embarked for Santo Domingo. This was the only attempt of the Spaniards to found a settlement north of St. Augustine.

CHARLES I, KING OF SPAIN

(Known also as Emperor Charles V)

31. De Narváez's Expedition, 1528. In 1528 Pánfilo de Narváez,[4] hoping to rival the brilliant exploits of Cortés, set

[1] In 1532 the Spaniards under Pizarro conquered Peru with its vast treasures of gold and silver. In Lima was founded in 1551 the University of San Marcos, the oldest existing university in the New World.

[2] The king of Spain, Charles I, ordered De Ayllón (day ah eel yohn′) to carry missionaries with him at the expense of the crown. The king wrote: "Our principal interest in the discovery of new lands is that the inhabitants and natives thereof, who are without the light of the knowledge of faith, may be brought to understand the truths of our holy Catholic faith."

[3] San Miguel (sahn mee gale′).

[4] Pánfilo de Narváez (pahn′fee lo day nahr vah′ayth).

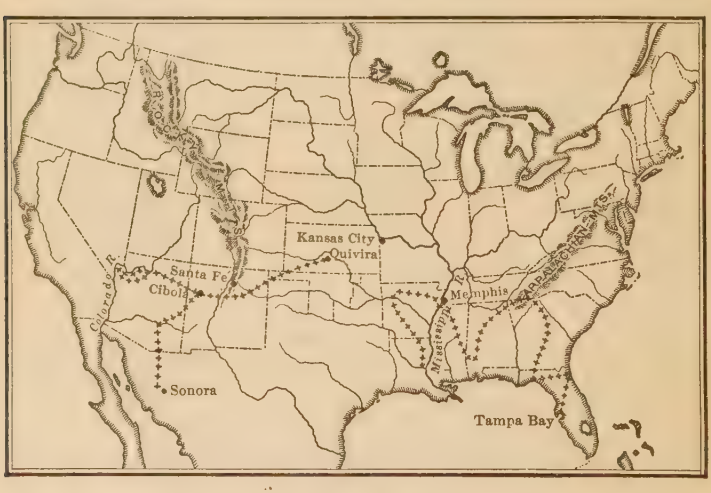
out to conquer the land to the north of the Gulf of Mexico. Indians had been seen at Mobile Bay wearing ornaments of gold, which had come, they said, from a country to the north. With four ships and four hundred men Narváez sailed from Cuba and soon reached Tampa Bay. Leaving the ships for a short exploration he marched inland; but disasters quickly overtook him. His treatment of the Indians was so cruel that they attacked him at every point. Narváez tried in vain to find the ships again and wandered hither and thither along the coast. Some of the expedition at last built boats and rowed along the shore to one of the mouths of the Mississippi where Narváez was drowned; the expedition was scattered, and four survivors, one of them an officer named Cabeza de Vaca,[1] fell into the hands of the Indians. They wandered from tribe to tribe until, after nine years and a journey of two thousand miles, they reached the western coast of Mexico. Cabeza de Vaca told wonderful stories of the immense herds of buffaloes he had seen and of the fabulously wealthy cities in the interior.

SPANISH EXPLORATIONS

32. Coronado's Expedition, 1540. The Spanish viceroy of Mexico, Mendoza, hearing the wonderful tales told by Vaca and his companions, determined to find these rich cities, and sent a Franciscan monk, Father Mark, a native of Nice, to

[1] Cabeza de Vaca (cah bay'thah day vah'cah).

search for them. He penetrated probably as far north as the Zuñi pueblo of New Mexico, which he saw from a distance. His little force was attacked, and he returned to Mendoza with an account of his journey. Believing they had found the famous "seven cities of Cíbola,"[1] Coronado was dispatched with one thousand one hundred men to conquer them and bear away their treasures. He attacked and ransacked the first of these cities, but nothing valuable was found. The



DE SOTO'S EXPEDITION IN THE EAST, AND CORONADO'S IN THE WEST

rude houses were made of sunburnt clay, and the poverty of the natives showed that gold was an unknown article. He now roamed over those vast deserts and plains covered with buffaloes.[2] One of his parties discovered the canyon of the

[1] Cíbola (thee'boh lah). It was a tradition that on the conquest of the Spanish peninsula by the Moors, in the eighth century, a Bishop had fled from Lisbon with his followers across the sea and founded seven rich cities. The Spaniards believed they had now found these cities.

[2] "In nine days' march I reached some plains so vast that I did not find their limit anywhere that I went, although I traveled more than three hundred leagues through them. And I found such a quantity of cows [buffaloes] that it is impossible to number them."— Letter of Coronado

Colorado River. Coronado penetrated as far north as the Platte River, where he erected a cross bearing the inscription, "Thus far came the General Francisco Vásquez de Coronado."[1] He returned to Mexico in 1542, bitterly disappointed at his failure.[2]

33. De Soto's Expedition, 1539. In the meantime another Spaniard, Hernando de Soto,[3] who had been appointed governor of Cuba, decided to try his fortunes in the search for

DE SOTO REACHES THE MISSISSIPPI

the gold country. In May, 1539, he landed at Tampa Bay with about five hundred and seventy men and two hundred horses. He advanced slowly northward through the swamps and jungles, suffering bitter hardships. The journey led him

[1] Francisco Vásquez de Coronado (frahn thees'coh vahs'kayth day co ro nah'doh).

[2] Forty years later (1582) the Spanish Franciscans founded Santa Fe, the second oldest city in the United States. Some historians give the date of this foundation as 1605.

[3] Hernando de Soto (air nahn'doh day soh'toh)

among the warlike Indian tribes, — the Seminole, Choctaw, Creek, and Chickasaw. In the course of a year, after traversing the states of Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi, they reached in 1541 the Mississippi River.[1] Crossing this river, they marched westward through the present state of Arkansas. Finding nothing of value, they turned southeastward, and after great suffering again came in the present state of Louisiana upon the Mississippi at the point where the Red River enters it. Here De Soto died, and to conceal his death from the Indians, who feared him, he was buried in the waters of the great river. Nearly half of the expedition had died of fever and of wounds inflicted by the Indians. The survivors built rude boats and sailed down the Mississippi to the Gulf of Mexico, where they made their way to the Spanish settlements in Mexico. Another attempt at colonization had failed, and half a century after Columbus's discovery of America not a permanent Spanish settlement existed north of the Gulf of Mexico.

II. French Explorations

34. Verrazano's Voyage. For some time after the division of the world between Spain and Portugal, France did nothing of importance in the way of exploration. In 1523 Francis I, king of France, desiring to obtain a share of the territory in the New World and to find a passage to the rich countries of the East, sent Verrazano,[2] a native of Florence but now in the French service, on a voyage of discovery. Sighting land near Cape Hatteras in 1524, he cruised along the Atlantic coast northward. He soon entered the present harbor of New York, which he compared to a beautiful lake. After cruising

[1] The first European to see the Mississippi River was Alvárez de Pineda (ahl vah'rayth day pee nay'dah), who discovered its mouth in 1519 and spent six weeks cruising upon it. He named it Río de Espíritu Santo (River of the Holy Ghost). Some authorities now claim, however, that it was Mobile Bay that Pineda entered.

[2] Verrazano (vai rah tsah'noh).

along the shores of what is now Long Island, he discovered and entered Narragansett Bay and sailed along the coasts of Massachusetts and Maine — probably the first European to trace the Atlantic coast from the mouth of the Chesapeake to the Bay of Fundy. On his return he wrote a letter to the French king describing his voyage, which is believed to be the earliest description of the coast of the United States.

35. Cartier's Explorations. The war which was now being waged between France, Italy, and Spain prevented further explorations for some years. In 1534 the ancient town of St.-Malo was the scene of preparations for an expedition which was destined to be of the greatest importance to France. In April of that year Cartier[1] sailed to the west and discovered the land since called Newfoundland. Passing through the Strait of Belle Isle, he sailed into a gulf which he thoroughly explored. It was the great Gulf of St. Lawrence, a name given to it by Cartier on his second voyage. As the winter was approaching, Cartier and his fleet returned to France.

Cartier prepared at once for another voyage, and on the morning of May 16, 1535, he assembled the officers and crew of his three vessels in the cathedral of St.-Malo, where they received the blessing of the Bishop and sailed for the St. Lawrence. Entering this mighty river, he sailed onward, passing the mouth of the Saguenay and afterwards the towering promontory where later rose the fortifications of Quebec. Cartier with his Indian pilots pushed on up the river until they reached Hochelaga, as their chief town was called by the Indians. Cartier named it Mont Royal, or Royal Mountain, and claimed possession of the country for the king of France.

36. Founding of Port Royal, 1605. Cartier made another voyage in 1541, but founded no permanent colony. War with Spain, as well as civil wars, so disturbed the kingdom of France that seventy years elapsed before another expedition was fitted out for colonization purposes, although hundreds of vessels

[1] Cartier (car tee ay).

sailed for fish every year to the Banks of Newfoundland and to secure also the furs which the Indians brought from the forests to the coast.

In 1604 a French nobleman, Sieur de Monts,[1] obtained a grant to colonize Acadia, a name given to the region from the fortieth to the forty-sixth parallel of north latitude, or from Philadelphia to the northern limits of Nova Scotia. The expedition sailed in the spring of 1604, cruised along the coast, explored the Bay of Fundy, and finally established a settlement at Port Royal, now Annapolis, Nova Scotia, but it was abandoned in 1607. In 1610 it was again founded.[2]

37. Champlain founds Quebec, 1608. Among De Monts's companions was a captain of the royal navy, Samuel de Champlain, a brave soldier, a tireless and scientific explorer, whose love of France was equaled only by his desire to Christianize and civilize the Indians. He has been rightly named "the Father of New France." Sailing up the majestic river, past the wooded banks where the Indian camps sent up their curling wreaths of smoke, Champlain landed on the site of Quebec, and here was established, in 1608, a trading colony, *the first permanent French settlement in America.*[3]

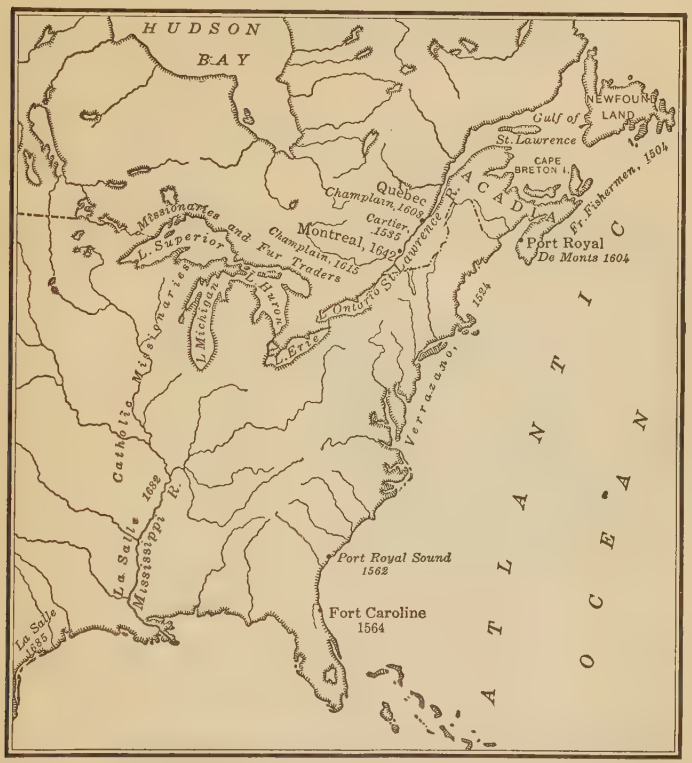
38. Discovery of Lake Champlain. Soon after his arrival Champlain joined the allied army of the Hurons and the Algonquins, who were at war with the fierce Iroquois. Moving up the river called Richelieu from the great Cardinal of France, Champlain saw before him the beautiful lake that now bears his name. It was dotted with islands; its banks were

[1] Sieur de Monts (see ur′ dĕ mŏng).

[2] In 1613 an English expedition from Jamestown utterly destroyed Port Royal. Another settlement, St. Sauveur, on Mount Desert Island, had been destroyed a short time before by the English. Fathers Biard and Massé, the first Jesuit missionaries on American territory, were seized, the latter being put adrift at sea in an open boat, but was afterwards rescued. Father Biard was taken to Jamestown and later reached France.

[3] The attempt made to found a settlement at Port Royal, Nova Scotia, in 1605 was, as we have seen, a failure. Five years later a permanent settlement was made, but Quebec had already been founded two years

covered with dark hemlocks and pines; on the eastern horizon rose the Green Mountains, and to the west stretched the Adirondacks, where roamed the Iroquois. The forces met at the head of the lake, and the Iroquois, panic-stricken at the



FRENCH EXPLORATIONS AND SETTLEMENTS

noise of Champlain's guns, fled for their lives. This victory of Champlain was a costly one for France. From this time the Iroquois, the strongest Indian confederation on the continent, were the relentless, cruel enemies of the French.[1]

[1] This enmity to the French was abated only when the military power of New France brought the Iroquois to terms.

During the next twenty-seven years Champlain journeyed over the vast northern wilds from the Kennebec to the Strait of Mackinac, with the aid of the Franciscans and the Jesuits establishing missions and trading posts along the rivers and lakes. "Peaceful, benign, beneficent," says Parkman,[1] "were the weapons of this conquest. France aimed to subdue, not by the sword but by the cross; not to overwhelm and crush the nations she invaded but to convert, to civilize and embrace them among her children." In 1629 an English fleet appeared before Quebec and demanded its surrender. As Champlain could not defend his little post, he was compelled to haul down the flag of France. For three years the English controlled Quebec, but the post was restored to France by the treaty of 1632.

39. The French in Florida. In 1562 Coligny,[2] the leader of the Huguenots, or French Protestants, decided to found a colony on the south Atlantic coast of America, and John Ribaut[3] led an expedition to South Carolina, where a fort was built at Port Royal. Leaving thirty settlers, Ribaut returned to France. The settlement was a failure. The colonists mutinied, put to sea in a worthless, leaky vessel, and would have perished probably, had they not been picked up by an English slave vessel, which took them to London. The following year, 1564, a second party of three vessels, under the leadership of Laudonnière,[4] built a fort on the St. Johns River in Florida, and called it Fort Caroline in honor of the king of France, Charles IX. Here they were joined later by Ribaut with reënforcements.

40. Menéndez destroys the French Settlement. Spain claimed Florida by right of the discovery of Columbus and Ponce de León's exploration. Accordingly an officer of the royal navy,

[1] Parkman, Pioneers of France, p. 451.

[2] Coligny (co leen'yee). Coligny's plan was to found a settlement on the Florida Strait, from which he could plunder the Spanish treasure ships on their way homeward to Spain. This settlement would also serve as a base to attack Havana and the Spanish ports on the Caribbean Sea.

[3] Ribaut (ree bo). [4] Laudonnière (low dŏn nee air').

Pedro Menéndez,[1] was sent to drive out the French. The French saw with alarm the Spanish vessels off the mouth of the river, and at once preparations were made by both forces for an attack. Menéndez, however, sailed down the coast a short distance and, landing, built a fort, which in honor of the day he called St. Augustine (1565). *St. Augustine was the first permanent Spanish settlement in the United States.* It was also the first permanent settlement of Europeans within the present limits of our country. Ribaut followed a few days later, hoping to catch the Spaniards unprepared. Just as the French ships were bearing down on the enemy a hurricane scattered the squadron in all directions. Menéndez, in the meantime, had hurried to Fort Caroline and easily captured it, changing its name to San Mateo. Some of the soldiers escaped, but most of the garrison were put to death. Ribaut and the survivors of the hurricane later fell into the hands of Menéndez and were executed.[2]

OLD SPANISH CATHEDRAL IN ST. AUGUSTINE, FLORIDA

[1] Pedro Menéndez (pay'dro may nen'dayth).

[2] The history of these times is filled with the stories of heartless cruelties. When the French took Havana they put all the inhabitants to the sword, while the English corsairs always put to death the Spanish sailors they captured. The shipwrecked mariners of the Armada were butchered in attempting to save themselves on the coast of Ireland. This, however, is no justification for the inhuman barbarities of Menéndez.

41. De Gourgues's Revenge. To avenge his countrymen, a Frenchman named De Gourgues[1] fitted out, at his own expense, a secret expedition of three vessels. Sailing for Florida, he surprised the Spanish garrison that guarded Fort San Mateo and hanged every man within it. As no further attempts at colonization were made by France in that section, Spain kept possession of Florida.

III. English Explorations

42. Drake's Voyage, 1577–1580. For almost one hundred years after the voyages of the Cabots, the English appeared to lose interest in the work of exploration. In 1576 Sir Martin Frobisher attempted in vain to find a northwest passage to Asia. In the following year, 1577, Sir Francis Drake sailed from Plymouth with five vessels toward South America. He lost four of his vessels, but with the remaining one, the *Pelican*, he sailed through the Strait of Magellan. He journeyed northward along the western shore of South America and the coasts of Mexico and California, robbing the rich Spanish vessels and plundering the Spanish towns. He sailed as far north as Oregon, and then, returning because of the cold, made a landing near the present city of San Francisco and took possession of the country in the name of the British crown, calling it New Albion.[2] He returned by

SIR FRANCIS DRAKE

[1] De Gourgues (dĕ goorg′).

[2] England was called Albion because of the white (Latin *albus*) cliffs of Dover. As the coast here resembled the English shore, Drake named it New Albion.

way of the Cape of Good Hope, and thus made the second circumnavigation of the world.

In 1578 Sir Humphrey Gilbert obtained from Queen Elizabeth a charter which granted to him any new land, not already occupied by any Christian prince, that he might discover in America. In the colony which he intended to found he hoped to give a refuge to the persecuted Catholics of England. In 1583 he touched Newfoundland, and claimed it for the queen, but he and one of his ships were lost at sea on the return voyage.[1]

ENGLISH EXPLORATIONS

43. The Raleigh Colonists. Gilbert's grant was now transferred to his half-brother, the famous Sir Walter Raleigh, and in 1584 he obtained from Elizabeth a charter to found a settlement upon any territory not already occupied by any Christian power. The expedition was sent out under Amadas and Barlowe and landed at Roanoke Island, off the coast of the present state of North Carolina. So favorable were the reports that Elizabeth called it Virginia, in honor of herself. In the following year, 1585, emigrants from England landed and a town was founded. It was a signal failure and

[1] John Davis, an English navigator, attempted in three voyages (1585–1587) to find a northwest passage. He discovered the strait that bears his name. It was not until 1854 that the Northwest Passage, connecting the Atlantic and Pacific oceans, was discovered by Sir Robert McClure, an Englishman. Roald Amundsen, a Norwegian, was the first to push a boat through the passage, which he did in 1906. Amundsen was later (1911) the discoverer of the South Pole.

the colonists were glad to return with Sir Francis Drake, who happened to be sailing homeward that way. Among the articles brought by Raleigh's colonists to England were dried tobacco leaves and potatoes. He planted the latter on his estate in Ireland. Potatoes did not come into general use, however, before the eighteenth century.

SIR WALTER RALEIGH

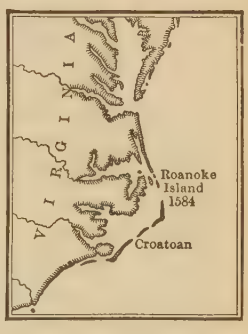
44. The Lost Colony of Roanoke. In 1587 Raleigh determined to send out another colony, this time to Chesapeake Bay, under John White as governor. The settlement was, however, made again on Roanoke Island, and White returned to London for supplies, leaving with the colonists his daughter and his granddaughter, Virginia Dare, the first child born of English parents in America. He was detained in England for three years, because of the war with Spain,[1] and when he finally reached the site of the settlement not a trace of the colonists could be found. They had disappeared, and the mystery has never been solved.[2] Raleigh's funds were now exhausted. He had spent an equivalent in our money of one million dollars,

[1] The leading event in this war was the destruction in 1588 of the Spanish Armada, a powerful fleet of warships sent by Spain against England. The defeat of the Armada is considered one of the decisive battles of the world. It practically gave control of the sea to England and allowed that nation to found numerous colonies in America during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries.

[2] The only trace of the lost colony was the word *Croatoan* cut in the bark of a tree. This was the name of a small island near by, but nothing was found there to show the fate of the colonists.

and his interests were assigned to a stock company.[1] Raleigh was the first promoter of English colonization in America.

45. The Voyages of Gosnold and Pring. In March, 1602, an English navigator, Bartholomew Gosnold, sailing westward directly across the Atlantic from the Azores instead of following the long, circuitous route by way of the West Indies and Florida, reached a cape which he called Cape Cod from the large number of codfish found in the waters thereabout. Gosnold accomplished nothing except, perhaps, that he showed a short route across the Atlantic.



In 1603 Martin Pring, on a voyage of trade and exploration, visited Plymouth harbor, calling it Whitsunday Bay. Two years later, 1605, George Weymouth cruised along the coast of Maine.

SUMMARY

I. **The Spanish.** Ponce de León, in 1513, visited Florida and gave it its name. His attempt to found a colony eight years later was a failure.

Cortés, in 1519, sailed for Mexico, which he conquered two years later, destroying forever the power of the Aztec Confederacy.

De Ayllón, in 1526, founded a colony on the James River in Virginia. In the following year the colony was abandoned.

De Narváez, in 1528, led an expedition to conquer the lands north of the Gulf of Mexico. All the members except four perished, including Narváez.

De Soto, in 1539, attempted to conquer Florida. He reached the Mississippi (1541), but his expedition was a failure.

[1] Raleigh visited South America, but never came to the shores of North America. Queen Elizabeth died in 1603 and was succeeded by James I, who caused Raleigh to be arrested for high treason. After many years in prison he was executed in 1618.

Coronado, in 1540, explored the Southwest as far north as Nebraska. One branch of his expedition discovered the canyon of the Colorado.

In 1565 St. Augustine was founded. This was the first permanent Spanish settlement in America.

II. **The French: in the North.** In 1524 Verrazano explored the coast of North America from Cape Hatteras to the Bay of Fundy.

Jacques Cartier, in 1534, discovered the Gulf of St. Lawrence. In the following year he discovered the St. Lawrence River and gave the name Mont Royal to the site of the present city of Montreal.

In 1608 Champlain founded Quebec, the first permanent French settlement in America.

The French: in the South. In 1562 Ribaut attempted to found a settlement, Port Royal, in South Carolina.

In 1564 Laudonnière built Fort Caroline, in Florida. The garrison was destroyed by Menéndez.

III. **The English.** In 1577–1580 Sir Francis Drake made the second circumnavigation of the world.

In 1578 Sir Humphrey Gilbert obtained a charter and made two fruitless voyages. Sir Walter Raleigh took up the work and attempted to colonize Virginia. His efforts were a failure.

In 1587, under Raleigh's patronage, a colony was established on Roanoke Island, with John White as governor. White went back to England for supplies, and on his return after three years' absence no trace of the colony could be found.

In 1602 Gosnold explored the north Atlantic coast; in 1603 Pring visited the harbor of Plymouth; in 1605 Weymouth visited the coast of Maine. These three voyages accomplished little of importance.

Dates to be remembered:

1519. Cortés begins the conquest of Mexico.

1535. Cartier discovers the St. Lawrence River.

1565. Foundation of St. Augustine, first permanent Spanish settlement in the present limits of the United States.

1608. Champlain founds Quebec, first permanent French settlement in America.

Persons to know about:

Cortés, De Soto, Cartier, Champlain, Raleigh, Drake.

PERIOD OF EXPLORATION (1492–1565)

	Spanish	French	English	Portuguese
1492	Columbus discovers America			
1497			Cabot discovers the continent of North America	
1501				Vespucius explores the coast of South America
1513	Ponce de León discovers Florida. Balboa discovers the Pacific Ocean			
1519	Magellan sails on his great voyage; Cortés begins the conquest of Mexico			
1522	One of Magellan's ships reaches Spain. It was the first to sail around the world			
1524		Verrazano explores the coast of North America		
1532	Pizarro begins the conquest of Peru			
1535		Cartier discovers the St. Lawrence		
1541	De Soto reaches the Mississippi			
1564		The French settle in Florida		
1565	St. Augustine founded	The French colony in Florida is destroyed		

Map work:

On a map find St. Augustine, Vera Cruz, the City of Mexico, the canyon of the Colorado, Quebec, Montreal, Nova Scotia, Roanoke Island.

Trace the route of De Soto and that of Coronado.

REVIEW EXAMINATION

1. Show how each of the following was identified with the exploration or settlement of the New World: Ponce de León, Coronado, Cartier, Champlain, Raleigh. What was the purpose of each?

2. Connect an important event with each of the following: Cortés, De Soto, Sir Humphrey Gilbert, Verrazano, Menéndez.

3. Account for the following names: Florida, Virginia, St. Augustine, St. Lawrence, Montreal.

4. Name the first permanent settlement in the present limits of the United States. By what nation was the settlement made?

5. Give an account of French explorations in America, touching on the services of (*a*) Verrazano; (*b*) Champlain.

6. Who is often called the first great promoter of English colonization in America? When and where in America was the first English colony planted? What became of it?

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CHAPTER III

"The fascinating history of [the] remarkable and widespread Indian missions . . . furnishes some of the most brilliant examples on record of self-sacrificing and heroic devotion to an exalted cause." — THWAITES, "France in America," p. 157

THE EARLY MISSIONARIES

46. The Religious Orders in Florida. While the Spanish settlements were being founded, the religious welfare of the Indians was not overlooked. In 1565, as we have seen, the city of St. Augustine had been founded and a church built there. In the following year the Jesuit Fathers Pedro Martínez[1] and John Rogel were sent by Francis Borgia, General of the Jesuits, to found a mission in Florida. On arriving off that coast Father Martínez landed to explore the shore. Scarcely had he done so when a gale arose, driving the vessel out to sea. Father Martínez was quickly surrounded by the savage Indians and put to death. Ten years later other Jesuits arrived to establish missions; they learned the Indian language and opened schools. An attempt to found a mission on Chesapeake Bay was made by the Jesuits under Father Segura.[2] Scarcely had their vessel departed when they were killed by the Indians. The remaining Jesuits throughout Florida were thereupon (1572) recalled and sent to Mexico.

The Franciscans now took up the missionary work in Florida, and Father Pareja[3] translated many religious books into the native dialects. Fearful persecutions broke out from time to time; the missions were destroyed, and the missionaries

[1] Martinez (mah tee'nayth). [2] Segura (say goo'rah).
[3] Pareja (pah ray'ha).

fell victims to the fury of the savages.[1] When Florida was ceded to England by Spain, in 1763, missionary work came to an end.

47. The Missionaries of New France — the Récollets and the Jesuits. In 1615 four Récollets,[2] a branch of the Franciscans, arrived in New France to assist Champlain in his noble efforts to civilize the savage tribes. They were the first priests to settle in Canada. They established missions along the St. Lawrence

FOUNDING A SETTLEMENT IN CANADA

River, and preached to the tribes of the Algonquian family from Cape Breton Island to the headwaters of the Ottawa. One of their number, Father Le Caron, discovered (1615) Lake Huron. In 1625 the Franciscans invited the Jesuits to share with them the glorious work of the missions. The

[1] "Proceeding to the town of Topequi, the Indians burst into the house of Father Blas Rodriguez. The missionary endeavored to show them the wickedness and folly of their conduct, which would entail punishment here and hereafter, but finding his words of no avail, he asked the Indians to allow him to say Mass. They granted his request, moved by a respect which they could not understand; and the good priest, with his expectant murderers for his congregation, offered the Holy Sacrifice for the last time and then knelt down before the altar to receive the death blow." — Dr. J. G. SHEA, "The Catholic Church in the United States," Vol. I, p. 154

[2] Récollets (ray co lay').

Jesuits accepted the invitation and were soon carrying the gospel far and wide in the wilderness and along the lakes and rivers.[1]

In 1629 the English captured Quebec, and the Récollets and Jesuits were transported to England. Canada did not remain long in the hands of England, for the treaty of peace in 1632 secured Canada again to France. The Jesuits resumed missionary labors in Canada the same year. When Montreal was founded, in 1642, the Sulpicians established themselves and soon founded schools and seminaries in and near Montreal, but the Jesuits had practically entire charge of the great tracts of land to the north and west.

48. The Huron Missions. Father Jogues and the Iroquois. Under the zealous Fathers Brébeuf,[2] Lalemant, and Daniel — all three destined to suffer martyrdom under the most horrible tortures — the Huron tribe was visited and a central mission was established at Sainte Marie of the Hurons near the eastern borders of Georgian Bay. Fathers Raymbault[3] and Jogues visited Sault Sainte Marie,[4] where a great gathering of Chippewa and other tribes was held. The Jesuits also made plans to journey to the great plains of the Far West. On one of the expeditions Father Jogues was returning to his missions from Quebec with his companion René Goupil,[5] when they fell into the hands of the ferocious Mohawk. They were treated with inhuman cruelty. Their nails were torn out, some of their

[1] "They penetrated the Indian towns, lived with the savages, bore unparalleled hardships, ministered to the wretched, instilled the teachings of Christianity into the minds of any who would give them a hearing, and thought no danger or sacrifice great enough to deter them from carrying on their work. The Indian world was their parish. Wherever they went they made keen observation of all they saw, and reported to their superior in France in a remarkable series of letters called the *Jesuit Relations*. They carefully mapped the scenes of their labors; they journeyed all over the valleys of the St. Lawrence and Mississippi; they discovered all the important lakes and tributary streams of the great valley. Although the Fathers served so faithfully, most of them met violent deaths at the hands of the savages whom they had come to help." — THORPE, "History of the American People," p. 27

[2] Brébeuf (bray boof′).

[3] Raymbault (ram bo′).

[4] Sault Sainte Marie (soo saint ma′ry).

[5] René Goupil (rĕ nay′goo peel′).

fingers sawed off, their bodies burned and hacked, and they were finally compelled to undergo the terrible journey to the Indian settlement on the Mohawk River. Here René Goupil was killed, but Father Jogues made his escape to a Dutch vessel and was hospitably received in New York, whence he

THE GREAT INDIAN CONFERENCE AT SAULT SAINTE MARIE

sailed for France. Two years later he returned to Montreal and was sent to the Mohawk to ratify a treaty of peace. He again returned to Montreal; but his desire to establish a mission among the savage Mohawk led him to again journey into their country, where he was treacherously seized and killed October 18, 1646. A shrine at Auriesville, New York, marks the spot of his martyrdom.

The Iroquois now spread death and destruction on every side; their war parties (in 1649) swept along the Great Lakes

and the St. Lawrence River, cutting off the trade of the French with the West and rendering the journeys of the missionaries impossible. Many Jesuits were captured. Fathers Brébeuf and Lalemant were burned at the stake, and Fathers Garnier, Daniel, and Chabanel fell beneath the tomahawk. In the meantime dissension arose in the Iroquois confederacy, and the Onondaga sought a treaty of peace with the French in 1653. They asked for the establishment of a French mission. The other Iroquois tribes, except the Mohawk, also made a treaty, and accordingly a colony was founded on Lake Onondaga by the French. Jesuits accompanied the settlers, founding chapels and traveling through the tribes preaching the word of God. The missions prospered, and a bright future was opening before the faithful colonists, when an Indian plot to destroy the entire settlement was discovered. By a stratagem[1] the French were enabled to withdraw and reach Quebec in safety. The work among the Iroquois had been apparently unsuccessful, but the Jesuits were not discouraged. After some severe defeats at the hands of the French regular troops, the Iroquois sought peace, and in 1667 the Jesuits were again in the Iroquois country. Missions were established among each of the five tribes, but the rivalry between the French and English destroyed to a great extent the work of the good missionaries. One by one the missions were closed, and the country of the Iroquois was again left a prey to the warring tribes of the confederacy. It was not until 1666 that De Courcelles,[2] the new governor of Canada, decided to wage war in earnest on the Iroquois. The country of the Mohawk was overrun, and their towns and crops destroyed. For twenty years the Mohawk tribe never dared to go again on the warpath against the French.

[1] The Indians were invited to a banquet, at which they so gorged themselves that they soon fell into a deep sleep. The French took advantage of their helplessness and fled from the Indian encampment down the Oswego River to Lake Ontario.

[2] De Courcelles (day cour sell').

49. The Ottawa Missions. In 1660 Father René Ménard set out on his missionary labors to the lands of the Ottawas. After incredible hardships he reached the bay, now called Keweenaw, on the south shore of Lake Superior. "The nearest altar of the living God," says Dr. John Gilmary Shea, "to that raised by this aged and intrepid priest was that of the Sulpicians at Montreal, yet the altars of Santa Fe and St. Inigoes (Maryland) were but little more remote. The aged priest stood alone in the heart of the continent, with no fellow priest and scarcely a fellowman of European race within a thousand miles of him." The following year, in attempting to reach an Indian tribe near the headwaters of the Mississippi, he strayed from his companions and was never again heard from. In 1667 Father Claude Allouez,[1] Superior of the western missions, carried the gospel through the present state of Wisconsin and the upper part of Michigan. On the south shore of Lake Superior, La Pointe mission was founded and was named Saint Esprit, or Holy Ghost. The first mission on Lake Michigan was established in 1669 at Green Bay and named St. Francis Xavier. Allouez built up also the mission of Sault Sainte Marie. These were the three chief Jesuit missions of the Northwest. In 1671 Father Marquette founded the mission of St. Ignace on the Strait of Mackinac. This place became an important fur-trading point, until Cadillac founded Detroit thirty years later on the strait which connects Lake Erie with Lake Huron. Over the Indian trail at Detroit the Indians from the east passed in great numbers on western journeys. In every direction the tireless, faithful Jesuit penetrated the forest, preaching the gospel, instructing the children, and teaching the Indians the ways of civilization.

50. The Maine Missions. Fathers Biard and Massé had established in 1613 a mission on Mount Desert Island, but it was destroyed by an English expedition sent out from the Jamestown colony in Virginia.

[1] Allouez (al oo ay').

In 1633 the Capuchin Fathers, aided by Cardinal Richelieu[1] of France, established missions and schools for the Indians along the coast from the mouth of the St. Lawrence to the Kennebec.

In 1646 Father Druillettes was sent to the Abnaki on the Kennebec River. He was also intrusted with the duty of visiting the authorities of the English colonies in New England to secure a compact for trade and an alliance against the Indians, especially the Iroquois. He was hospitably received in Boston, although the most bitter penal laws were in force against the Jesuits. The following year he visited New Haven to meet delegates from the New England colonies, but his mission was not successful. He soon returned to Canada, and during the next thirty-six years there was little or no missionary work among the Abnaki. In 1688 the Jesuits returned and had scarcely resumed their labors when war broke out in Europe between England and France. At once the horrors of Indian warfare swept like a forest fire from the St. Lawrence southward. The Indian settlements along the Penobscot were burned and the churches destroyed by the English colonists and their allies. In August, 1724, Norridgewock was captured by the English, and brave Father Rale,[2] the faithful friend of the Abnaki, fell at the first onset. The church was plundered and destroyed, and the English returned in triumph from their errand of destruction.

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[1] Richelieu (reesh le uh').

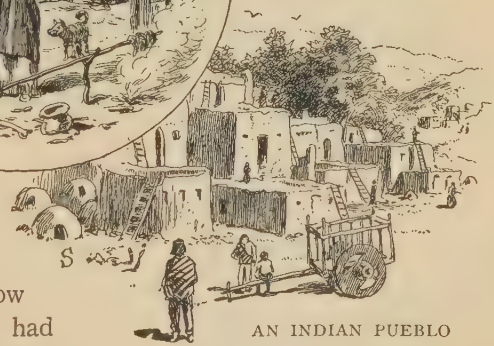
[2] Father Rale came to America at the age of thirty-two and, after a journey in the West, spent twenty-five years among the Abnaki. He wrote a dictionary of their language, which is now in the library of Harvard University. He was one of the most heroic of the many brave Jesuits who faced death hourly for the faith. Though he knew there was a price of one thousand pounds sterling on his head, he never fled from danger, and at last fell at his post of duty.

CHAPTER IV

THE INDIANS

51. Families. Appearance. Let us now glance at the barbarous tribes that occupied, at the discovery of America, practically the whole country. These natives were called Indians by Columbus, as he believed the newly discovered land was a part of India. Incorrect as the name was found to be, it has remained to this day.

AN INDIAN CAMP



AN INDIAN PUEBLO

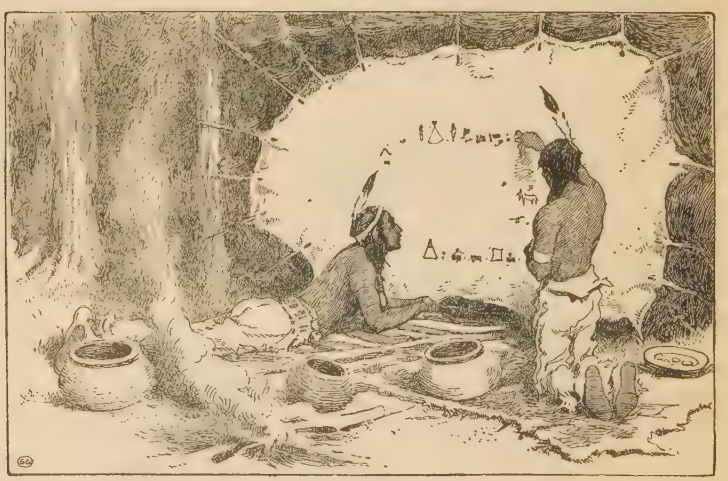
No one knows how long the Indians had been in America before the white man found them or where they came from.

The Indians of North America, north of Mexico, were for the most part members of six great families.[1] These families

[1] The basis of the family division of Indians is a common language. It has been estimated that there were between fifty-five and sixty distinct Indian linguistic families north of Mexico.

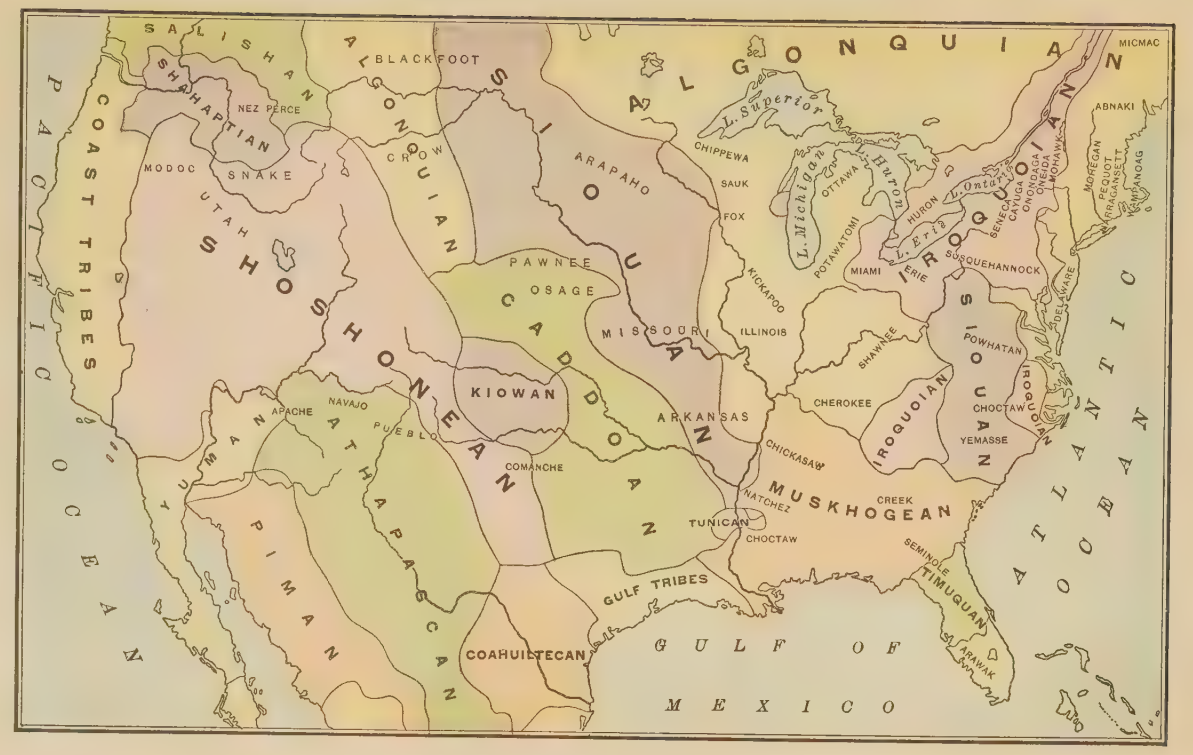
were the Algonquian, the Iroquoian, the Muskhogean, the Siouan, the Shoshonean, and the Athapascan. On the map may be seen the territory occupied by these families.

As a rule the Indians were copper-colored and were therefore called the red men. They had small black eyes, straight black hair, and high cheek bones. The men had beardless faces. When Columbus arrived the Indians were spread over all the Western Hemisphere from the Arctic Circle to Cape Horn.



INDIAN PICTURE WRITING

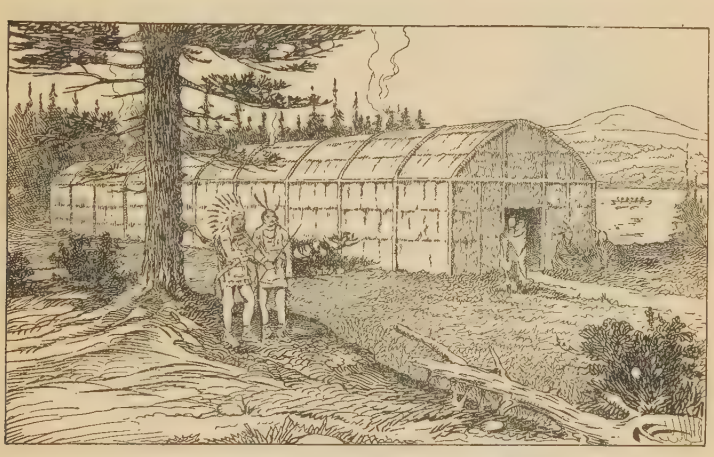
52. Indian Homes. The homes of the Indians varied to a marked degree in different parts of the country. The Indians of the West and Northwest, who were of a ferocious nature, lived in wigwams, or tepees. These tepees were circular in shape, made with poles drawn together at the top. They were covered with skins or bark and could be set up easily and carried from place to place. These Indians moved frequently from one hunting ground to another and lived on game and fish. They cultivated the soil very little and made scarcely any progress in the arts except in the weaving of baskets.



INDIAN FAMILIES AND TRIBES

In the Southwest lived the Pueblo Indians, who had made great progress toward civilization. Their houses of sun-dried brick were built on the plateaus or in the cliffs of the vast canyons; hence they were called Cliff Dwellers.[1] They made cloth and pottery and tilled the soil.[2]

East of the Mississippi River the development of the Indians was more marked. Except the Iroquois they lived in wigwams grouped together in villages surrounded by palisades of wooden



LONG HOUSE OF THE IROQUOIS

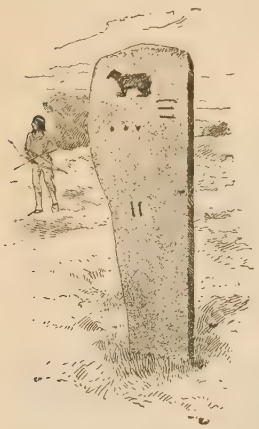
poles. The Iroquois lived in the so-called "long houses," which were made of wooden poles with cross pieces, the whole being covered with bark. Many families lived in each house.

53. Government. The basis of Indian government was the clan, which was composed of all who were descended from

[1] Throughout the Middle West hundreds of mounds and earthworks, large and small, have been found. They were supposed for a long time to have been built by a quite civilized race, which had disappeared before the landing of Columbus. This view is no longer held. "It is enough to say," wrote Major Powell of the United States Geological Survey, "that the Mound Builders were the Indian tribes discovered by the white man."

[2] Careful scholars estimate the Indian population north of Mexico at the time of the discovery of America as approximately five hundred thousand.

the same female ancestor. Each clan had its own symbol or mark, called the totem, which was usually an animal, as the wolf or bear, and they held as sacred the animal whose image was their emblem. The head officer was elected and was called the sachem. Warriors of great ability and bravery were elected chiefs. In time of war one chief was selected to lead all the forces. All property except weapons and ornaments belonged to the clan and not to the individual Indian. The union of many clans formed a tribe. Matters in dispute or great questions of war and peace were settled by a council composed of the sachems and chiefs of the different tribes.[1] In the council the Indian was dignified, quiet, and reserved. The decision of the council was generally obeyed without question. The Indian, however, never willingly gave up his independence and equality. As a defense against hostile groups, tribes of the same family at times joined together in a confederacy. This was the case with the powerful Iroquois of the state of New York, as well as the Aztecs of Mexico. As a rule, however, there was little union among the tribes.[2] Even those of the same family at times fought one another. This lack of union prevented united action, as we shall see, against the English colonists.



INDIAN GRAVESTONE SHOWING TOTEM OF THE BEAR

[1] "They [the Indians] have traditions but no history. Civilized people erect monuments of various kinds to commemorate their own deeds and those of their ancestors. Throughout the length and breadth of the United States there does not exist, and probably there never did exist, a monument of any kind deliberately erected by an Indian or a tribe to commemorate an event in Indian history." — THORPE, "History of the American People," pp. 1–2

[2] Among the few great Indian leaders in our history were Powhatan, King Philip, Pontiac, Tecumseh, Black Hawk, Brant, Red Jacket, Sitting Bull, Nez Percé Joseph, and Sequoya who invented the Cherokee alphabet.

54. Weapons, Clothing, Food, and Customs of the Indians. The early Indians used the bow and arrow, and hatchets with stone heads. Later they obtained from the white man firearms and became most expert in their use. They wore furs of various animals and buffalo hides; on their feet they wore moccasins made of deerskin or the hide of the moose. The Indians were swift of foot, alert, and very skillful hunters; they knew the habits of every animal and bird in the forest, of every fish of the river; they could follow a trail with amazing skill; their life in the woods taught them to be quick-witted, patient, and keen-sighted, and trained them to endure calmly heat or cold, hunger or thirst; they bore physical pain with marvelous bravery; their self-control was wonderful; under the most horrible torture no cry escaped from the lips of the Indian; on the contrary, he generally sneered at his torturers.

STONE HATCHET

The Indians treated their captives with merciless cruelty. They frequently compelled a captive to "run the gantlet." Two lines of strong young braves were drawn up, and the captive was required to run down the line between them while they cudgeled him with their powerful war clubs. Very often they burned their captives at the stake after horrible tortures. At times, however, they adopted a captive into the tribe if he appeared to be brave and fearless.

WAR CLUB

The Indian was by nature cheerful and lazy. He loved to hunt and fish and go to war, but the tilling of the soil was largely the work of the women.[1] They raised Indian corn, or

[1] Women, or squaws as they were called, had great influence with the tribes, from the fact that the wigwams and the children belonged to them.

maize, beans, squashes, tobacco, and pumpkins. As they had no domestic animal except the dog, they did not use a plow, but merely scratched the soil with a stick tipped with a sharp stone, which served as a hoe. From the Spaniards they secured the horse, and from the missionaries, especially the Franciscans in the Southwest, sheep and goats were obtained. They ate berries, roots, seeds, nuts, wild rice, wild fruit, and cranberries. They obtained sugar from the maple tree and oil from hickory nuts. From the bison, deer, bear, antelope, and other animals meat was secured. Along the coasts they ate large quantities of clams and oysters. As a rule the Indian made little provision for the future. In time of plenty he gorged himself; in time of famine he starved or was saved by the fact that all goods were held in common and sufficient was at times stored to last through the winter. Fire was secured by rubbing sticks together. They roasted their meat, or boiled it by dropping hot stones into a dish filled with water. No wheeled vehicle was known among the early Indians. The women and children were compelled to bear the tents, food, and utensils on the march.

INDIAN CALUMET, OR PIPE OF PEACE

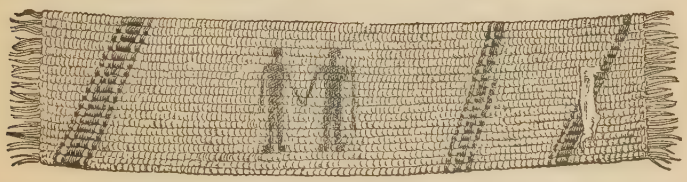
55. Method of Warfare. Religion. Wampum. The Indians were generally at war with each other. Their disputes frequently arose from claims to hunting territory. When preparing for war they painted their faces with stripes of yellow, blue, and red; with unearthly war whoops they then went forth armed with clubs, tomahawks, spears, and bows and arrows on their path of destruction and bloodshed.

They wore a lock of hair called the scalp lock. To kill an enemy and to tear off that part of the scalp which bore the lock, wearing it later at the belt, was the highest triumph of

the Indian. They never fought in the open field, as the red man's idea of military glory was simply to get the scalp of his enemy and to save his own.

Their religion was a sort of nature and ancestor worship, the rites of which were carried on mainly by medicine men, but they had no temples and no priesthood. They believed a spirit — the Manitou — dwelt in every plant and tree, stream and lake. They looked to a life beyond the grave, a happy hunting ground, to which only the brave would be admitted.

To ratify a treaty the Indians smoked a peace pipe, called the calumet. In dealing with each other they used seashells, which they called wampum. They kept a record of their



WAMPUM, OR INDIAN MONEY, MADE OF STRINGS OF SHELLS OR BEADS

treaties by means of the belt of wampum, the beads telling exactly what was done. Later the wampum became a medium of exchange for the colonists also, in dealing not only with the Indians but with each other. This was very important, since it allowed the settlers to establish a regular trade in furs and fish with the Indians and to sell them hardware and blankets. The Indians could not write, but painted pictures of great events.

The Indians were very skillful in making bows and arrows, stone hatchets, clothing from furs, and especially the birch-bark canoe, by which they were able to travel easily and quickly over the lakes and rivers from one part of the country to another. These Indian trails were later the route of many of our great highways and railways. At many an Indian portage, or carrying-place of the canoe from one river to another, American cities with Indian names have grown up.

56. What the Colonists learned from the Indians. The Indians taught the white man many valuable things, — the worth of Indian corn, the modes of hunting and fishing, the value of the canoe, the wigwam form of tent, the use of the moccasin for traveling in the forest, and of the snowshoe for walking on the surface of the snow in winter in search of food.

They also taught the colonists how to make corn grow in the forest by burning or girdling the trees, thereby killing them and letting in the sunshine. Thus the crops grew without the tedious labor of cutting down the trees. The colonists were also taught by the red man how to hunt and trap game and to fish through the ice of the lakes and rivers. When treated with kindness the Indian was a friend and often warned the colonists of the approach of Indian war parties. The clearing of the forests, however, gradually drove away the game and deprived the Indian of his land. He was crowded farther and farther backward. Wars ensued, but the Indian was always defeated, and to-day he is largely in government reservations.[1]

SUMMARY

The copper-colored natives of America whom Columbus discovered on his first voyage were called by him Indians.

The Indians as a whole may be grouped into six leading families.

The leading types of Indian homes were the wigwam, or tepee, long house, and sun-dried brick, or adobe, hut.

The Indians lived partly by agriculture and partly by hunting.

[1] "The student of early American history can make one generalization with some degree of confidence: so long as the white invaders were fur traders and missionaries, there was peace on the frontier; but when the newcomers were farmers or planters, Indian war broke out before very long. In other words, while their hunting grounds were preserved to the Indians, they looked upon the whites as the benevolent dispensers of useful utensils, pots of iron, articles of personal adornment, fire water, and sometimes firearms; but when the whites began to plow the soil and to build houses, they seriously interfered with the Indians' food supply. . . . Purchase of land from Indian chiefs, fair trading, and the impartial administration of English law made no difference. Deprived of his land the Indian must fight or starve." — CHANNING, "United States," Vol. I, pp. 454–455

The basis of Indian government was the clan, made up of those descended from the same female ancestor. Several clans made a tribe.

The Indians used seashells, called wampum, for barter. They ratified peace treaties by smoking the peace pipe, or calumet.

The Indian was cruel in war, but was frequently a good friend. The Indians taught the white man many valuable things, which frequently saved the early colonists from death by famine.

REVIEW EXAMINATIONS

1. Why and by whom were the natives of America first called Indians?
2. Describe the life of the Indian in respect to (*a*) his home; (*b*) his food; (*c*) his religious belief.
3. What effect on American history have Indian trails produced?
4. Mention two important things the white man learned from the Indian.
5. Explain wampum, "running the gantlet," sachem, clan, portage.

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CHAPTER V

" Here lay the shaggy continent, from Florida to the Pole, outstretched in savage slumber along the sea, the stern domain of Nature. . . . On the banks of the James River was a nest of woe-begone Englishmen, a handful of Dutch fur traders at the mouth of the Hudson, and a few shivering Frenchmen among the snowdrifts of Acadia; while deep within the monotony of desolation, on the icy verge of the great northern river, the hand of Champlain upheld the fleur-de-lis on the rock of Quebec. These were the advance guard, the forlorn hope of civilization, messengers of promise to a desert continent." — PARKMAN, " Pioneers of France," pp. 295–296

PERMANENT COLONIAL SETTLEMENTS

ENGLISH SETTLEMENTS

VIRGINIA, 1607

57. Conditions leading to Colonization. Before studying the permanent English colonial settlements we should seek the reasons for the interest in colonization which arose in England at the beginning of the seventeenth century. For many years wars had been in progress on the continent of Europe. Most of these wars had now ceased, and the soldiers who returned in large numbers to England had no occupation and wandered here and there seeking employment. It was thought, therefore, they could be useful as colonists in the New World. A second reason was the change in the industries of England. The wool manufacture had become so valuable that it was more profitable to turn out the tenants on big farms and change these farms into sheep ranges. This left hundreds of men, women, and children homeless. Another reason was the destruction of the monasteries and convents by King Henry the Eighth and

Queen Elizabeth.[1] Thousands of members of religious orders were driven out to seek homes wherever they could find them. The poor and friendless, who had been aided by the charity of the religious orders, were now compelled to look to the state for aid. Still another reason, and one of the strongest, for the

RUINS OF THE ABBEY OF ST. MARY AT YORK

interest in colonization was the dislike of many of the Protestants for the Church of England, which had been established by law and to which they were compelled to contribute. They

[1] As the English monarchs during the exploring and colonizing eras really ruled the government of England, their names frequently appear in the story of these times. The following list is given, therefore, that a better understanding may be had of the succession of these rulers and the years of their reigns:

Henry VII	1485–1509	The Protectorate	1653–1660
Henry VIII	1509–1547	Charles II	1660–1685
Edward VI	1547–1553	James II	1685–1688
Mary	1553–1558	William and Mary	1689–1702
Elizabeth	1558–1603	Anne	1702–1714
James I	1603–1625	George I	1714–1727
Charles I	1625–1649	George II	1727–1760
The Commonwealth	1649–1653	George III	1760–1820

were anxious to go where they could establish a church according to their own ideas. These were some of the reasons for the active interest in colonization in England at this time.

58. The London and Plymouth Companies. At the opening of the seventeenth century England had profited little by the discoveries of the Cabots. In 1606 she opened a new era in her history by granting a charter to two commercial companies,[1] one composed chiefly of London, the other of Plymouth, merchants, and therefore called the London and Plymouth companies. A charter was granted for colonizing purposes in Virginia, at that time the name of the whole territory in America claimed by England.[2] In the charter the king granted to the London Company the sole right to colonize the territory between Cape Fear and the mouth of the Potomac — from thirty-four to thirty-eight degrees of north latitude; to the Plymouth Company he granted a similar right to plant colonies from the Hudson River to the Bay of Fundy — forty-one to forty-five degrees of north latitude. A middle strip from the mouth of the Potomac to the Hudson — from the thirty-eighth to the forty-first degree of north latitude — was open to

JAMES I

[1] The immense financial loss of over one million dollars by Raleigh in his attempts to found a colony deterred others from undertaking similar enterprises. As trading companies like the East India Stock Company had been enormously enriched by their commerce with the East, it was believed a joint stock corporation rather than a private company could better carry on so vast an enterprise. Hence a new corporation was formed and obtained a charter from King James of England.

[2] Spain claimed all this territory, but the peace of 1604 between England and Spain opened the way for English colonization.

whichever of the two companies should first colonize it. It was provided, however, that neither company was to establish a colony within one hundred miles of any existing settlement.[1]

59. The Popham Colony in Maine, 1607. With the charters secured, both companies fitted out ships. The Plymouth Company, under George Popham, sailed (May 31, 1607) for the coast of the present state of Maine and, landing at the mouth of the Kennebec, made a settlement. It was an absolute failure, and in the following year, after intense suffering, the settlement was abandoned and the colonists returned to England.

CAPTAIN JOHN SMITH

60. Settlement of Jamestown, 1607. Period of Distress. In the meantime the London Company had begun to colonize its grant. Three vessels were sent out and reached (April, 1607) the mouth of Chesapeake Bay. They named the capes at its

[1] As it was under this charter that the first permanent English colony in America was founded, some of its provisions may well be studied:

1. The colonists were allowed to enjoy "all liberties, franchises, and immunities" of British subjects as though they were still residing in England.
2. Each land grant should extend inland one hundred miles.
3. The king should have one fifth of all the precious metals mined.
4. The colony should be governed by a Royal Council of thirteen members residing in England and appointed by the king.
5. Another council of thirteen members, residing in America, should have local direction of affairs.
6. Each company might coin money, punish crime, and make all laws necessary for the control of affairs, subject, however, to the veto of the king of England.
7. All goods were to be owned in common, the products of the soil being deposited in a public magazine or storehouse.
8. All laws, ordinances, and instructions were to be given by the king, thus giving the colonists no popular rights whatsoever.

mouth Cape Henry and Cape Charles in honor of the two sons of King James. Entering a broad river, which they named the James in honor of the king, they landed at a point thirty miles up the river. Here they made a settlement, which they called Jamestown. *This was the first permanent English settlement in America.*

The colony was made up largely of men who were unused to work, — so-called English gentlemen,[1] members of the lesser

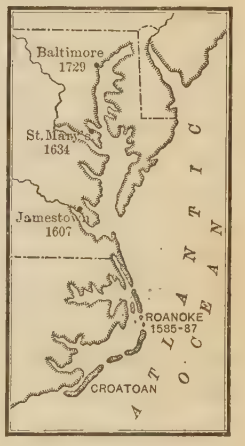
THE SETTLEMENT OF JAMESTOWN

nobility, — and instead of building houses, planting seed, and preparing for the future, they looked for gold.[2] Fever and famine overtook them. In four months one half of their number was dead. At this critical time a fearless, restless

[1] "They were going to a wilderness in which as yet not a house was standing and there were forty-eight gentlemen to four carpenters." — BANCROFT, "History of the United States," Vol. I, p. 88

[2] Under the charter all the provisions were placed in a common storehouse for the use of those who wished to take them. The result was that the lazy helped themselves generously and did not work, while the industrious had to labor not only for themselves but for those who were idle. The result was disaster, as anyone might have foretold.

adventurer, John Smith,[1] was elected President of the Council. At once affairs changed for the better. He made a stringent rule that anyone who refused to work should not eat. He procured food from the Indians, built huts, and explored the bays and inlets of the coasts, the rivers, and the surrounding country. Corn was planted,[2] and his energy for two years saved the colony from utter ruin.



61. Arrival of Reënforcements. Dale as Governor. About two years after the colony was founded, five hundred new colonists started from England under the direction of Sir Thomas Gates and Sir George Somers. The newcomers were a wretched set of men utterly unfit to build up a colony. While the vessel bearing Gates and Somers was wrecked on the Bermuda Islands, the rest of the expedition arrived. Gates and Somers reached Jamestown in the following spring in a boat of their own construction. The colony was in a pitiable condition. John Smith had been wounded and and returned to England. Of the five hundred colonists that had arrived a few months before, only sixty were alive; all were discouraged, and many resolved to return to England. Embarking on June 8, 1610, they were sailing down the James, when they met Lord Delaware, the

[1] Shortly after his arrival in Virginia, John Smith was captured by the Indians and condemned to death. His head was already on the stone and a stalwart Indian stood over him with a club to beat out his brains, when Pocahontas, the daughter of the chief Powhatan, begged her father to save Smith's life. The request was granted, and Smith was adopted into the tribe. Many historical students, however, reject the Pocahontas story as a myth.

[2] John Smith wrote that there was "no talk, no hope, no work but dig gold, wash gold, refine gold, load gold." Unfortunately what they were digging was not gold at all but worthless iron pyrites. It is scarcely to be wondered that the Council wrote to London asking them to send carpenters, smiths, and bricklayers.

newly appointed governor, coming up the river with a fleet stored with provisions. Thereupon all returned to Jamestown. Lord Delaware remained a few months only, and for the next five years his successor, Sir Thomas Dale, ruled the colony with an iron hand. He required attendance at the service of the Church of England under the direst penalties, and criticism of that church might, under the law, be punished with death.

62. The New Charter. Abolition of Communism. Cultivation of Tobacco. A new charter had been brought over in 1610 by Lord Delaware which made many modifications of the original one. It provided that the government of the colony should be placed entirely in the hands of the Royal Council in England; that the land grants, at first extending only one hundred miles inland, were to run west and northwest from sea to sea, — from the Atlantic to the Pacific; that no one could settle in Virginia unless he took the oath of supremacy; that is, to acknowledge the king of England as the head of the church. This, of course, shut out many Protestants as well as Catholics from the colony.[1]

One of Dale's first acts[2] was the abolition of the system of placing the products in a public warehouse for the public use. According to this plan the industrious worker supported the idler. Hereafter every man must support himself, and to each settler were granted three acres of land. Conditions were improved, and the success of the colony was assured when John Rolfe,[3] in 1612, began the planting and curing of tobacco, making it equal to the Spanish tobacco which was in general use in England. The tobacco trade was extremely profitable.

[1] The penal laws against the Catholics were very severe. They could not hold office, and were punished with a severe fine if they attempted to vote. No priest was allowed in the colony. In a court of justice a Catholic could not be a witness.

[2] In the so-called Dale's Laws of 1611 the punishments were extremely cruel. Dale even inflicted torture on the unfortunate colonists.

[3] John Rolfe had married Pocahontas. She was the daughter of the Indian chief Powhatan (pow ha tan'). The marriage of Rolfe to Pocahontas had the good effect of rendering her tribe friendly to the settlers.

Large numbers of settlers arrived daily, and the output of tobacco increased in eight years over four hundred and twenty thousand pounds. In 1670, fifty-one years from Rolfe's first crop, Virginia produced twelve million pounds. So extensive now became its cultivation that a law was passed compelling every man to plant a certain number of acres of corn for the food supply.

63. Effects of Tobacco Culture. Introduction of Slavery, 1619. The widespread cultivation of tobacco produced unexpected results. Up to this time there was no commerce of any value with Europe, but the sale of tobacco started a profitable trade. The news of the success of the tobacco crop induced many to come to Virginia from England to take up its cultivation. Again, the growing of tobacco required many and cheap laborers. Accordingly criminals were sent from the jails of England, orphans from asylums, and waifs from the streets.

Laborers were also induced to come as indentured[1] servants. In return for their passage to America, food, and clothing, these indentured servants agreed to serve a term of labor of five, seven, or ten years in America. During these years they were practically slaves. At the end of the term of their contract they were free either to work for wages or to secure a farm for themselves.[2] In August, 1619, a Dutch ship came up the James River with twenty negroes, who were sold as slaves to the planters. This was the beginning of negro slavery and the slave trade[3] in Virginia. Slavery increased until at last there were slaves in every colony in America.

[1] The agreement with a servant was made by a contract across which extended a cutting like the teeth of a saw. Hence the word *indenture*, "to cut into points like a row of teeth." The paper was then separated, one part being kept by the master, the other by the servant. If both parts when put together exactly fitted, it was evidence that they were the same contract.

[2] The colony was composed almost entirely of men. To induce them to settle down for life and make Virginia their home, the London Company, in 1619, sent over ninety young women as wives for the settlers. Whoever could give one hundred and twenty pounds of good tobacco, worth about ninety dollars, could select one of the young women for a wife, if she were agreeable.

[3] In 1687 an English company, led by the Duke of York, secured a monopoly of the slave trade between Africa and the English colonies in America.

64. The Establishment of Representative Government. Difficulties with their governor induced the colonists to ask the London Company for a more representative form of government. A new governor, Sir George Yeardley, was appointed. He requested the colonists, who were scattered to the number of four thousand through eleven settlements, or boroughs, as they were called, to send two representatives to an assembly. This body came together in a little church at Jamestown, July 30, 1619. *This House of Burgesses, the first legislative body in America, was the beginning of popular, representative government.*[1]

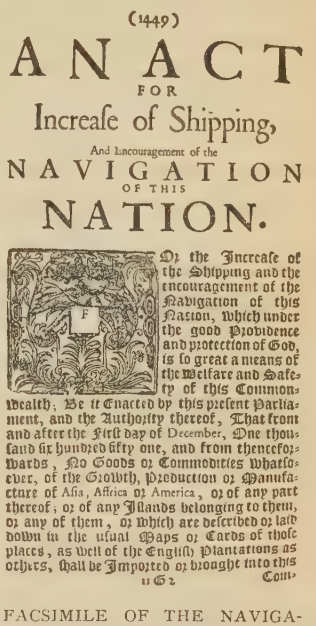
65. Virginia loses its Charter, 1624. King James, however, had become displeased with the London Company and brought a suit to annul its charter. The suit was decided in the king's favor (1624), and Virginia became a royal province, passing under the direct control of the king. Nevertheless, the people continued to make most of their own laws. Before James I had effected a change in the government of the colony, he died (May, 1625) and was succeeded on the throne by his son, Charles I. Seven years after his accession the king diminished the territory of Virginia by a grant of Maryland on the north and of the Carolinas on the south. Civil war soon broke out in England, and in 1649 Charles I was beheaded.[2]

66. Grant of Virginia. The Navigation Acts. When his son, Charles II, finally obtained the throne in 1660, he granted for thirty-one years to two favorites, Lord Culpepper and Lord Arlington, "the entire tract of land and water commonly called Virginia," with all the rents and revenues. This grant, however,

[1] It was composed of the governor and two houses — the council forming the upper house, and the representatives of the burgesses forming the lower house. It corresponded in this respect somewhat with the English Parliament or our own Congress. After the London Company was dissolved in 1624, the governor and council were appointed by the king, but the House of Burgesses was still elected by the freemen.

[2] At this time many sympathizers of the unfortunate king, called Royalists, or Cavaliers, emigrated to America and settled in Virginia.

was soon annulled. In the meantime the people were suffering from a series of oppressive acts, chief of which were the Navigation Acts, which were enacted between 1651 and 1663. These laws gave a monopoly of the colonial commerce to English merchants who, protected from competition, charged high prices on goods to the colonists and paid low prices on goods sold by the colonists. The Navigation Acts, as we shall see, were one of the great causes of discontent which finally led to the American Revolution.[1]


(1449)

AN ACT
FOR
Increaſe of Shipping,
And Encouragement of the
NAVIGATION
OF THIS
NATION.

Or the Increaſe of the Shipping and the encouragement of the Navigation of this Nation, which under the good Providence and protection of God, is ſo great a means of the Welfare and Safety of this Commonwealth; Be it Enacted by this preſent Parliament, and the Authority thereof, That from and after the Firſt day of December, One thouſand ſix hundred fifty one, and from thenceforwards, No Goods or Commodities whatſoever, of the Growth, Production or Manufacture of Aſia, Affrica or America, or of any part thereof, or of any Illands belonging to them, or any of them, or which are deſcribed or laid down in the uſual Maps or Cards of thoſe places, as well of the Engliſh Plantations as others, ſhall be Imported or brought into this

u G 2 Com-

FACSIMILE OF THE NAVIGATION ACT OF 1651

67. Bacon's Rebellion, 1676. Another grievance was that although Indian attacks were frequent, the royal governor, Berkeley, would not allow the colonists to march against them, as he was gathering a fortune from the Indian fur trade. Determined at last to take stringent measures against the Indians, Nathaniel Bacon asked Berkeley's permission to enlist volunteers. His request was refused, and he thereupon organized companies and chastised the Indians. The governor called it treason, but in view of Bacon's popularity with the people he pardoned him. A new assembly met and repealed many of the unpopular laws, passing others for the relief of the people. Civil war, however, broke out, with Bacon in charge of the forces against Berkeley, who was soon defeated and fled. Jamestown was thereupon utterly destroyed by Bacon.

[1] The original purpose of the Navigation Acts, which were enacted by Cromwell, was to drive Dutch shipping from the sea.

In the midst of his successes Bacon died, and the rebellion fell to pieces. Berkeley thereupon returned and punished with death a large number of the rebellious leaders.[1] Bacon's rebellion was a protest against the class legislation and the corruption of Berkeley's government. He attempted to secure for the people their rights against the ever-increasing tyranny of the aristocratic party, which tried to evade taxation while plundering the public treasury. Berkeley was at last recalled to England, peace was established with the Indians, and some abuses were remedied. The rebellion taught the colonists to act together against despotic authority and paved the way for the later resistance to the power of England.

SUMMARY

In 1607 the first permanent English settlement in America was made in Jamestown.

In 1619 was held the first legislative assembly in the New World. The same year marked the introduction of negro slavery in Virginia.

In 1676 Nathaniel Bacon rose in rebellion against the unjust laws and lax administration of the colony.

New Netherland, or New York, 1614

68. Henry Hudson and the Dutch. At the beginning of the seventeenth century the Dutch were one of the foremost commercial peoples of the world,[2] and their country, Holland, was one of the most prosperous in Europe. Their sails were upon every sea, and they were anxious for a short route to the Indies,[3] where they could secure the spices, silks, and precious

[1] Said Charles II of Berkeley: "The old fool has put to death more people in that naked country than I did here for the murder of my father." Charles II had executed only six of the fifty-nine judges who had voted for the death sentence of his father, Charles I.

[2] The Dutch in the seventeenth century had one half of the carrying trade of Europe, and Amsterdam was one of the greatest marts in the world.

[3] The Dutch used the route around the Cape of Good Hope. As this was controlled by the Portuguese, they sought a route around Asia or America.

stones so eagerly desired in the markets of Europe. In 1609 the Dutch East India Company, the most successful trading corporation in the world, sent Henry Hudson, an Englishman, to find this route to the East. He sailed northeast, but as his way was soon blocked by ice he changed his course to the westward. He came in sight of the Maine coast and cruised southward to the mouth of Chesapeake Bay. Turning northward again, he entered the present harbor of New York and explored in 1609 the mighty river that now bears his name.[1] In his vessel, the *Half Moon*, he sailed as far north as the site of Albany, exploring the banks and looking for an entrance to the Pacific. He received parties of Indians, whom he treated with great kindness.

THE *HALF MOON* ON THE HUDSON

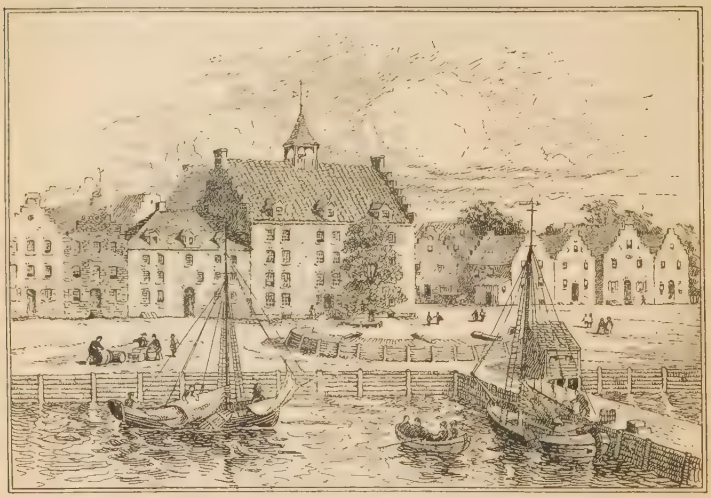
They were Mohawks of the Iroquois league, the strongest Indian power in America, and ever afterward the Dutch and Iroquois preserved ties of the strongest friendship. From the narrowing width of the river, Hudson knew he had not found the route to the East. On his return he sent to Amsterdam a glowing account[2] of the country he had visited and of the

[1] Verrazano on his great voyage (see sect. 34) discovered the mouth of the Hudson in 1524. Estevan Gómez, sailing from Spain, visited it in 1525, naming it River of Saint Anthony. Hudson was the first to explore it thoroughly, calling it River of the Mountains. It was also called the Mauritius in honor of Maurice, stadholder of the Dutch Republic. Later, however, it was justly given the name Hudson in honor of the great explorer.

[2] Of the country he wrote: "The land is the finest for cultivation that I ever in my life set foot upon and it also abounds in trees of every description."

great possibilities of the fur trade.[1] At once traders poured in from all parts of Europe,[2] and numerous posts were established for dealing with the Indians.

69. Settlement of Manhattan. The Dutch West India Company. Along the Hudson River, called by them the North River, the Dutch built trading places, — one, in 1614, on Manhattan Island, which became the present city of New



WATER FRONT IN EARLY NEW YORK

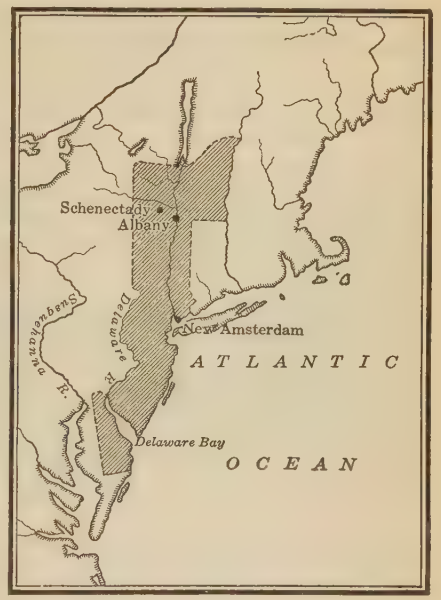
York, and another at Fort Orange,[3] on the present site of Albany. Southward they pushed their trading posts, one being built near the present site of Camden, New Jersey, on the

[1] England sent Hudson later to find a northwest passage. He discovered the bay and strait which bear his name, but he and his crew suffered fearfully from the intense cold. At length the crew mutinied and put Hudson with eight companions in a boat and set them adrift. The unfortunate explorer was never again seen nor heard from.

[2] Furs were of the greatest value to the Dutch traders because of the severe winters in northern Europe. Russia had supplied most of the furs up to this time.

[3] This place was so named in honor of the ruling house of the United Netherlands.

Delaware. This river was called by them the South River. They named the whole country New Netherland and claimed all the territory from the Delaware to the Connecticut. A new corporation called the Dutch West India Company took the place of the Dutch East India Company in 1621. The chief objects in the establishment of this Dutch West India Company were the pillage of Spanish settlements and fleets and the extension of profitable commerce. Its field was the west coast of Africa, America, and the islands of the Atlantic.



DUTCH COLONIAL CLAIMS

70. Purchase of Manhattan. The Patroons. In 1626 a colony under Governor Peter Minuit was sent out to the rude trading post on Manhattan Island, where a settlement was established. The officials were appointed by the company and no local self-government was allowed. The Indians sold the island for trinkets worth about twenty-four dollars.[1] A fort was established, and the Indian name Manhattan was first given to the settlement, but it was later named Fort Amsterdam. This was the beginning of the present great city of New York.

Three years later (1629) the company offered a grant of land on any river or bay except on Manhattan Island to the

[1] This was at the rate of about two cents an acre. The present assessed valuation of Manhattan Island with its buildings is over five billion dollars.

founder of a settlement of fifty persons over fifteen years of age. The grant gave to the founder of New Netherland, who was to be called a patroon,[1] a tract of sixteen miles frontage on one side of a river or eight miles on each side. The patroon was given practically absolute power over his estate and tenants. He had the right to appoint officers and magistrates and to act as judge in civil and criminal courts, which he was permitted to establish on his lands. The patroon was required to clear the land, put up buildings for the tenants, and provide cattle and tools. The settler, on his part, could not leave the estate to become the tenant of another. He also

THE BOWLING GREEN

agreed to bring his grain to the patroon's mill and pay for the grinding; to cultivate the patroon's land for ten years; to use only cloth made in Holland; to neither fish nor hunt on the patroon's property without his permission. If the tenant died without will, the patroon secured all his property. In 1638 the Dutch West India Company found the patroon system to be in general a failure, as it led colonists to go to New England. The company therefore abolished the monopolies and gave settlers the right to secure land for themselves.[2]

71. The Dutch Governors. Peter Stuyvesant. Under a series of incompetent and corrupt governors the colony fared ill. In

[1] *Patroon* means "protector" or "benefactor," like our English word *patron*.

[2] Father Jogues, the Jesuit, visited Manhattan Island in 1643 and found eighteen different languages spoken there even at that early date.

1647 Peter Stuyvesant arrived as governor. He was a tyrannical, dictatorial man who had no faith in the people.[1] He resolved to rule with absolute authority, and generally succeeded as there was no representative government in the colony. He declared that his oath of office forbade him to allow any religion except the Dutch Reformed, and he insisted on maintaining this church at the public expense. Dissenters were severely punished. Stuyvesant, in fact, threatened to hang any man who appealed from his decisions to the rulers in Holland.[2] In 1655 he attacked the Swedish settlements[3] on the Delaware and annexed them to New Netherland. He also attempted to annex Connecticut, but was unsuccessful.

PETER STUYVESANT

The English claimed the entire coast by virtue of Cabot's exploration, and saw with a jealous eye this Dutch settlement thrust in between the Virginia and the New England colonies. In spite of the Navigation Laws Dutch vessels carried tobacco from the English colonies to Europe, and goods from New Netherland were easily carried over the borders to the English

[1] Stuyvesant had lost a leg in the wars of Holland and was called "Old Silver Leg" by the English and "Hard-Headed Peter" by the Dutch.

[2] New Netherland was one of the few places in the New World where torture could be and legally was used on prisoners.

[3] These settlements had been made in 1638 by Swedish colonists who built a fort named Fort Christina in honor of the Queen of Sweden. This fort occupied the site of the later city of Wilmington. The Swedes named the country New Sweden.

colonies. This loss of revenue was a source of great irritation to the English government. King Charles, therefore, resolved to take possession of the colony of New Netherland. As a first step he granted, in March, 1664, to his brother James all eastern Maine and at the same time all the land between the Connecticut River and the Delaware. This grant covered, of course, the entire Dutch colony of New Netherland.

72. The English capture New Netherland. No time was lost, for five months later (August 18, 1664) a fleet appeared before New Amsterdam and demanded its surrender. Stuyvesant stormed with great rage and declared he would never surrender. The town, however, was in no condition for defense. The people were weary of Stuyvesant's despotic rule, and the flag of Holland was hauled down without a shot's being fired. The colony of New Amsterdam received the name of the Province of New York in honor of James, brother of the king, who was both Duke of York and Duke of Albany.[1] With the cession of the Dutch colony, the English now controlled the Atlantic coast from the Bay of Fundy to Florida.

73. The Duke's Laws. New laws, called the "Duke's laws," were enacted in 1665. They were drawn up by Governor Nicolls and a convention of representatives of the people. They were applied at first only to Long Island, but later to the whole province. These laws assured trial by jury, equal taxation, election of town officers by landholders, tenure of lands from the Duke of York, and a recognition of negro slavery. No representative assembly was granted, however, to the people.

In 1673 war again broke out between Holland and England, and New York surrendered to a Dutch fleet, but it was returned to the English at the signing of the treaty of peace in 1674. At this time Sir Edmund Andros was appointed governor of New York.

[1] The West India Company's trading-post on the upper Hudson was named Albany from James's second title.

74. Governor Dongan. In 1683 Thomas Dongan, a native of Ireland and a Catholic, was appointed governor,[1] and under his direction the first legislative assembly held in New York met in October of that year. A Charter of Liberties was drawn up,[2] guaranteeing freedom of conscience and religious liberty to all Christians. Trial by jury was assured, and no tax could be levied without the consent of the assembly. Dongan settled the boundary dispute with Connecticut, made a peace treaty with the Iroquois Indians who acknowledged themselves as subjects of England, and did all in his power to prevent the southward extension of French power.[3]

JAMES II

75. Leisler's Rebellion. After the departure of Dongan strife broke out in the colony. On the flight of James II, in 1688, from the throne of England a merchant named Jacob Leisler seized the government of the colony on the pretense of holding it for William and Mary, the new king and queen of England.

[1] "Saturday, the 25th of August, 1683, was a memorable day in the history of America, for it was then that Colonel Thomas Dongan arrived in New York.... With his coming a new epoch opened in the history of the province of New York, in the history of English-American colonies, and in the history of the international relations of England and France.... To him must be given the credit for first seeing the importance of the position of New York and the Iroquois in the international politics of North America." — CHANNING, "United States," Vol. II, p. 143

[2] The Charter of Liberties was sent to England for the approval of the Duke of York. Before it was signed Charles II died, and his brother, the Duke of York, became king. He repealed the Charter of Liberties, and finally annexed New York to New England under a single governor, Sir Edmund Andros. The consolidation of all the colonies north of Pennsylvania under Governor Andros took place in 1686.

[3] The first Latin school in New York was opened by the Jesuits in 1683.

He proceeded at once to vent his hate on the Catholics. Many of the ablest and noblest men in the colony who had refused to acknowledge his authority were thrown into prison on the charge of making alliance with the Catholics.

Believing that there was danger of an invasion by the French from Canada, Leisler, in 1690, called a congress of the American colonies to attack Canada. *This was the first of the congresses that finally resulted in the Congress of Philadelphia, where our independence was proclaimed.*

On the arrival of British troops Leisler refused to give up the fort and fired on the king's soldiers, killing a number. He was soon abandoned by the people and, being captured, was tried by court-martial for murder and treason. He was found guilty and was executed (May 16, 1691).

76. Persecution of Catholics. Royal Colony. A new assembly met after Leisler's death and reënacted Dongan's charter of 1683, giving New York a permanent representative assembly. This new charter granted by William and Mary had one important change, — the right of worship according to the Catholic religion was denied. In 1700[1] and 1701 laws were passed expelling Catholic priests from the colony; if any remained they would be punished with imprisonment for life. Any priest coming into the province of his own accord would be hanged. To Catholic laymen was denied the right to vote for any office.[2]

In 1741 a new persecution broke out. A depraved woman claimed to have discovered a plot on the part of the Catholics and negroes to burn the town. The latent bigotry now burst

[1] "Throughout the colonies," says Stillé, in *Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography*, Vol. X, p. 365, "at the beginning of the eighteenth century the man who did not conform to the established religion of the colony . . . if he were a Roman Catholic, was wholly disfranchised. To him there was not even the legal right of public worship."

[2] In 1734 occurred the famous Zenger trial. Zenger was a publisher and in his newspaper had called attention to the corruption of the government of the colony. He was at once arrested, tried for libel, and acquitted. The Zenger case is the corner stone of the freedom of the press in America.

into flame, and before the panic had ceased four whites were hanged; of the negroes, seventy were transported, eighteen were hanged, and fourteen burned at the stake.

From 1685, when the Duke of York ascended the English throne, until the Revolution New York remained a royal colony.

SUMMARY

In 1609 Henry Hudson, in the *Half Moon*, explored the Hudson River and gave to the Dutch possession of the country. They called it New Netherland.

In 1614 New Amsterdam was founded on Manhattan Island.

In 1664 the English captured the Dutch colony, naming it New York.

In 1683 the first legislative assembly was held under Governor Dongan. The Charter of Liberties passed by this assembly guaranteed religious liberty and trial by jury.

In 1690 Leisler assembled the first American colonial congress.

REVIEW EXAMINATION

1. Mention three European nations that made settlements in North America, and the first permanent settlement made by each.

2. Mention and explain: (*a*) three inducements that tended to bring settlers to the American colonies; (*b*) two difficulties they had to face.

3. Give an account of the efforts of Sir Walter Raleigh to plant colonies in America, and state the results of these efforts.

4. Give two reasons for the interest taken by Englishmen in colonization in the early seventeenth century.

5. Give a brief account of the settlement of Virginia. What two forms of government did it have?

6. Write on the topics: (*a*) first Navigation Act; (*b*) Bacon's Rebellion.

7. Show how the colonists of Virginia secured a representative government.

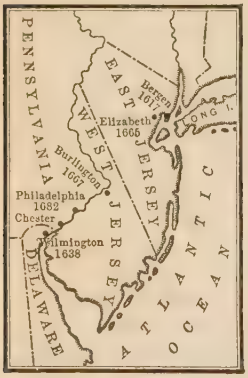
8. Give an account of the settlement of New York by the Dutch, covering (*a*) the purpose of the first settlers; (*b*) the location of the first two settlements; (*c*) the introduction of the patroon system.

9. Describe the settlement of New Amsterdam and its capture by the English.

10. Give an account of the rule of Peter Stuyvesant.

New Jersey, 1617

77. Settlement by the Dutch. Grant to Berkeley and Carteret. In 1617 Dutch fur traders built a fort at Bergen on the west bank of the Hudson River and claimed the country as a part of New Netherland. This claim, however, was denied by the English. When, therefore, the English had obtained control of the province of New Netherland, the Duke of York, in 1664, gave the land between New York Harbor and Delaware Bay to two court favorites, Lord Berkeley and Sir George Carteret. Berkeley took the southwestern portion, called West Jersey, while the northeastern portion, called East Jersey, was given to Carteret. Carteret had been governor of the island of Jersey, off the English coast, and had gallantly defended the island against the Puritan forces during the Civil War in England. The province was therefore called, in his honor, New Jersey.



SETTLEMENTS IN NEW JERSEY

The constitution under which the settlers lived gave them a voice in the lawmaking, as no tax could be levied without the consent of the assembly of their representatives. Freedom of worship was promised; but, as was the case in most of the colonies, it was not practiced in regard to Roman Catholics. In Newark only members of the Congregational church could vote.

A party of settlers under Philip Carteret, a relative of Sir George, founded, in 1665, Elizabeth, the first permanent English settlement in the state. A short time later Newark was founded by emigrants from the New Haven colony.[1]

[1] These colonists emigrated because of the union of the New Haven colony with Connecticut

78. Sale of New Jersey to the Quakers. A Royal Province. In 1673, because of endless disputes over the payment of rent[1] between the settlers and Berkeley, the latter sold West Jersey to the Quakers. These Quakers had fled from persecution in England.[2] Nine years later, on the death of Carteret, the Quakers secured East Jersey also. In 1688 both East Jersey and West Jersey were added to New York and to New England under the governorship of Sir Edmund Andros. The revolution in England forced out Andros from the governorship, and in the confusion that ensued as to the right of ownership the king took the colony as a royal province (1702). In this year liberty of conscience was proclaimed for all except Catholics and Quakers. For the next thirty-six years New Jersey was under the governor of New York, but in 1738 it was allowed to have its own governor.

SUMMARY

In 1617 the Dutch built a fort at Bergen on the west shore of New York Harbor.

In 1664 the Duke of York granted to his friends, Berkeley and Carteret, the present territory of New Jersey, which had been claimed by the Dutch. The territory was divided, Carteret taking East Jersey, and Berkeley taking West Jersey. Elizabeth, the first permanent English settlement in the state, was founded in 1664.

In 1667 Newark was built by emigrants from New Haven.

In 1673 the Quakers purchased West Jersey, Berkeley's share of the territory, and in 1682 they purchased East Jersey, Carteret's portion. This gave them control of the whole of New Jersey.

In 1688 the entire colony was added to New York and New England under Andros. In 1702 it became a royal province.

[1] The settlers had bought their land from the Indians, and some of them had also secured a grant from the Duke of York. They therefore refused to pay rent to Berkeley under his grant, as, they claimed, they already owned the land.

[2] The Society of Friends, or Quakers, was founded by George Fox in England. He was thrust into prison, but his doctrines spread rapidly. The Quakers taught the equality of man, and they believed there should be uniformity in dress. They recognized no title and kept their heads covered before king or peasant. They were opposed to war and slavery.

Massachusetts: Plymouth Colony, 1620; Massachusetts Bay Colony, 1630

79. The Pilgrims in Holland. We have already seen (sect. 59), how Popham, sent by the Plymouth Company, tried to found a settlement at the mouth of the Kennebec River in 1607, and failed. In 1614 John Smith of Virginia[1] visited this coast, of which he made a map and gave to it the name New England. His attempts at settlement, however, in this section were a failure.

In 1608 a party of English Protestants who were dissatisfied with the Church of England left the little village of Scrooby in central England.[2] They settled in Holland at Amsterdam, and a little later in Leyden. They found it difficult to earn a living in the small and thickly settled country of Holland. They also feared that their children would marry into Dutch families and would forget the English language and English

[1] In the meantime the French had begun to settle in Nova Scotia and Maine and the Dutch appeared along the Hudson River. It looked as if the English were to lose possession of the entire coast of northern America, until Argall, sent from Virginia in 1613, destroyed the French settlements in Maine.

[2] Although the Protestant Reformation was finally established in England in 1534 when Parliament passed the Act of Supremacy recognizing the king instead of the Pope as head of the Church in England, many of the older ceremonies of the Catholic Church were continued in the Church of England, as the new religious system was called. There were many, however, in the new English Church who were greatly dissatisfied. The general name of Puritan was given to all Protestants who opposed the Church of England. Among these Puritans some still attended regularly the services of the English Church, but wished to change it by abolishing the sign of the cross in baptism, the use of the surplice, statues of the saints, the veneration of relics, the use of holy water, the use of the ring in the marriage ceremony, and many other ceremonials. These people were named Nonconformists and were the most numerous of the Puritans. Another group of Puritans demanded for each church an independent rule. They were therefore called Independents, or Separatists, as they refused to attend at all the services of the Church of England. The Separatists who went to Holland were called Pilgrims. Against all these sects, as well as against the Catholics, Queen Elizabeth and King James I put into effect severe penal laws, and many suffered imprisonment and fines before they left England.

customs. They also foresaw the war which was about to break out between Spain and Holland and wished to avoid it.[1] They decided, therefore, to emigrate to America, and obtained from the London Company permission to settle in Virginia. Leaving the port of Delftshaven in July, 1620, on the *Speedwell*, they touched at Southampton, England, where another vessel, the *Mayflower*, joined them, and together they set sail with high hopes for America.

PILGRIM HOMES IN ENGLAND AND HOLLAND

80. Arrival at Cape Cod. The *Mayflower* Compact. The *Speedwell* was found to be unsafe, however, and returned. All who desired to continue crowded onto the *Mayflower*, which sailed with one hundred and two passengers. Early in November they sighted the shores of Cape Cod, far to the north of their destination. As this section was the property of the Plymouth Company, and they were to settle in the territory of the London Company, they started again southward. They were driven back by violent weather, and finally, anchoring in the harbor of Provincetown, they decided to get permission from

THE *MAYFLOWER*

[1] This was the terrible Thirty Years' War (1618–1648), which deluged so much of northern Europe in blood.

the Plymouth Company to settle on their land. Some of the members, taking advantage of the fact that they were not landing in Virginia, declared their independence of all authority. The colonists, therefore, drew up in the cabin of the *Mayflower* a compact to enact "such just and equal laws . . . as shall be thought most meet and convenient for the general good of the Colony, unto which we promise all due submission and obedience." This was the beginning of self-government in New England. They confirmed the appointment of John Carver as governor and for some weeks, while living on the ship, explored the coast.

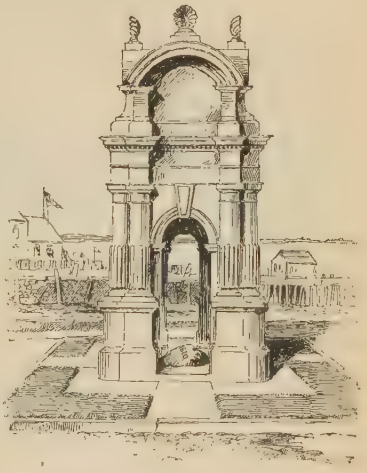
SETTLEMENTS OF PILGRIMS AND PURITANS

81. The Landing at Plymouth. The Treaty with the Indians. On December 21 they resolved to land at a place now called Plymouth, after Plymouth, the last port they left in England.[1] They suffered so severely from the cold winter and scarcity of food that one half of the colony perished during the winter and spring, among them John Carver, the governor, who was succeeded by William Bradford.

The Plymouth Company was dissolved at this time, and its successor, the Council for New England, granted to the Pilgrims a tract of land between the fortieth and forty-eighth degrees of north latitude, and extending from sea to sea, or from the Atlantic to the Pacific.

[1] This place had been visited by Champlain and called by him Port St. Louis. A granite bowlder, — the well-known Plymouth Rock, — which it is claimed served as a landing place for the Pilgrims, is preserved to-day at Plymouth, but it is not generally believed to be authentic.

One of the wise acts of Governor Carver before his death was the peace treaty with the Indians. Early in the spring of 1621 there appeared in the colony an Indian named Samoset. He had learned to speak a little English from the fishermen along the Kennebec River, and welcomed the English colonists to the land. He introduced to the Pilgrims the local Indian chiefs Squanto and Massasoit. A treaty was made with Massasoit which was faithfully observed for fifty-four years.[1]



CANOPY OVER PLYMOUTH ROCK

Along Narragansett Bay lived the powerful tribe named the Narragansett, whose chief was Canonicus. They were the enemies of Massasoit. Desiring to terrify the colonists, they sent to Governor Bradford a bundle of arrows which were tied together by the skin of a rattlesnake. Without the least fear Bradford filled the skin with powder and ball and sent it back. Canonicus became frightened and decided it was best to leave the colonists in peace.

The military leader of the colony was Myles Standish, the brave, energetic, heroic warrior who spread terror among the hostile Indians.

82. The Town Meeting. One of the most famous institutions founded in the New World by the Pilgrims was the "town meeting." Here the freemen who were members of the local

[1] A plague, probably of smallpox or measles, had swept away most of the Indians around Plymouth a short time before the Pilgrims arrived. The Pilgrims used their deserted cornfields. Squanto could speak English, as he had been kidnaped and taken to Europe but had been returned.

churches met together and voted directly on all questions instead of through representatives. It was the purest form of democratic government. The Plymouth colony grew slowly. Nine years after its establishment it had only three hundred members, and it was finally (1691) absorbed by the Massachusetts colony. The Plymouth colony has an important place in our history since "as the first successful colony on the New England coast, it was the cause and the beginning of the other

SAMOSET WELCOMES THE ENGLISH

colonies of New England and the second step in founding the great republic of the United States." [1]

83. The Massachusetts Bay Colony. The Puritans in England now followed the example of the Pilgrims. They obtained a tract of land stretching from three miles north of the Merrimack River to three miles south of the Charles and westward to the Pacific Ocean. Through fur trading, fishing, and agriculture it was hoped to make the colony profitable.

An expedition led by John Endicott sailed with sixty colonists and founded Salem in 1628. In the following year a royal charter was secured from King Charles I which established

[1] Tyler, England in America, p. 182.

the corporation as the "Governor and Company of Massachusetts Bay in New England." It was to be managed in England by a governor, deputy governor, and a council of eighteen assistants to be elected annually by the members or freemen of the company. In 1629 the management decided to move to New England that the colony might be better governed.

COLONIAL NEW ENGLAND

As the Puritan idea was to establish a state on the basis of the Old Testament, only Puritan church members were allowed to vote in the new corporation which ruled the colony.

The colonists under Endicott shortly after their arrival in Salem separated from the Church of England. They established independent churches after the model called Congregational, where each parish was an independent, self-governing church. The General Court of the colony ordered that "for the time

to come no man should be admitted to the freedom of this body politic but such as are members of some of the churches within the limits of the same." [1]

In June, 1630, John Winthrop, who had been elected governor, reached Salem with one thousand Puritans. He moved later to Charlestown, and still later to a place the Indians called Shawmut. The English named it Tri-mountain, or Tremont, because of its three hills. This name was later changed to Boston, after the English town whence many of the settlers came. A throng of immigrants now poured in, no less than twenty thousand arriving in ten years.[2] Among the settlements were Roxbury, Dorchester, Watertown, and Newtown, or Cambridge as it was later called.[3] The settlers at once engaged in farming, cod-fishing, and the building of ships.

84. Roger Williams founds Providence. In 1633 Roger Williams, pastor of a church in Salem, advocated the separation of Church and state and full freedom of religious belief. He also declared that the Indians, not the king of England, owned the land, and from the Indians the land must be bought if they would have an honest and valid title. He also denied the right of the magistrates to punish for failure to follow Puritan customs as to church attendance, dress, or amusements. For these and other opinions he was finally ordered to sail for

[1] "Not only was citizenship based on church membership, but the Bible was the only law-book recognized by the Court of Assistants. Of this book the [Puritan] ministers were naturally thought the best interpreters, and it thus became the custom for the magistrates to consult them on all questions of importance. Offenders were not merely lawbreakers, but sinners, and their offenses ranged from such as wore long hair to such as dealt in witchcraft and sorcery." — TYLER, "England in America," p. 202

[2] This migration was caused largely by the troubles in England where King Charles I, having dissolved Parliament in 1629, was ruling and taxing the people as he chose. Through lack of funds he was at last compelled to call Parliament together in 1640. Civil war followed, and King Charles was beheaded in 1649. See Montgomery's "Leading Facts of English History," p. 244, or Cheyney's "Short History of England," Revised Edition, p. 442.

[3] It was changed to Cambridge because most of the college graduates in the colony had been educated at the University of Cambridge in England.

England, but he escaped (1635) into the forest, where he secured shelter from friendly Indians. At the head of Narragansett Bay he bought land from the Indians and founded (1636) the city of Providence. At the same time Mrs. Anne Hutchinson was driven out of the Puritan colony of Massachusetts Bay for her peculiar religious beliefs. She and her friends bought the island of Aquidneck, — afterward called Rhode Island.

85. The New England Confederation, 1643. In 1643 the four colonies of Plymouth, Massachusetts Bay, Connecticut, and New Haven organized a military league or federal union.[1] It was called "the United Colonies of New England," but is generally known as the New England Confederation, and was designed for protection against the Indians, the French, and also the Dutch, who were still claiming the fertile Connecticut River valley. Another reason for the union was the Civil War in England and the necessity of being prepared for the result of that struggle. Still another reason was the desire to maintain the absolute rule of the Puritan Church in the New England colonies. Maine and Rhode Island were refused admission because they did not agree with the authorities of the Massachusetts Bay colony on either government or

PINE-TREE SHILLING OF MASSACHUSETTS

[1] At this time it is estimated that there were about twenty-three thousand five hundred people in these four colonies, Massachusetts having fifteen thousand, Plymouth three thousand, Connecticut three thousand, and New Haven two thousand five hundred.

There were eight commissioners, two from each colony, elected annually, and all members of the Puritan Church. They were given very large power, such as declaring war or peace, admitting new members, adjusting Indian affairs, securing justice to each member of the Confederation, and returning fugitive slaves. Each colony, however, managed its own local affairs.

religion.[1] The Confederation lasted for forty years, and is of importance as it was an early experiment in united action by the American colonies and may be called the first step toward the Constitution of the United States.

In 1652 Massachusetts issued its own coinage. One of the coins was the famous Pine Tree Shilling, on which the name of England and its king nowhere appear.

86. Persecution of the Quakers. In 1656 the first Quakers appeared in Massachusetts. Because of their independent religious views they had already been a source of grave trouble to the English authorities, who had tried in vain to crush them. No less than four thousand were in English jails at one time. Their appearance in Massachusetts created great alarm, and they were at once shipped back to England. A law was enacted against them which provided for flogging and imprisonment. These laws did not deter the Quakers in the least. They poured into the colony, denounced the magistrates, and defied the Puritan clergy.

In 1657 another law was enacted, that Quakers should have their ears cut off and their tongues pierced with red-hot irons. In 1658 the Massachusetts General Court passed a law providing the death penalty for returning Quakers, and in 1659 four of them were hanged on Boston Common, while others were flogged from town to town, imprisoned, starved, and otherwise maltreated. A reaction soon set in. While the magistrates, led chiefly by Endicott and the Puritan clergy, endeavored to keep up the persecution, the people revolted, and gradually the Quakers enjoyed the rights that belonged to them as free-born English subjects.

87. King Philip's War, 1675–1676. The treaty which had been made with Massasoit, chief of the Wampanoag tribe, had

[1] According to Winthrop, Maine was rejected because Agamenticus, or York, the leading place, had elected a tailor as mayor and an unorthodox preacher as minister. Of Rhode Island, Winthrop said: "We have no conversing with them, nor desire to have, further than necessity or humanity may require."

been strictly kept until his death in 1660. Massasoit left two sons, who had been given the names Alexander and Philip.[1] Alexander died in 1662 after a visit to Plymouth. Philip believed he had been poisoned and at once set out to make war on the English, who were gradually settling around him nearer and nearer and compelling him to give up more of his land year by year and destroying the hunting grounds. In 1675 Philip let loose his warriors, and for two years the horrible warfare was carried on throughout Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut. At length he was hemmed in in a swamp near Mount Hope, Rhode Island, and was killed August 12, 1676. His hands were cut off and sent to Boston, and his head was set up on a pole in Plymouth. The war had cost the colonists six hundred fighting men and heavy war debts. A vast amount of property had been destroyed, but the Indian power in New England was broken forever.

KING PHILIP'S WAR

88. Loss of the Massachusetts Charter, 1684. When Charles II regained, in 1660, the throne of his father, he was beset by the Quakers, Baptists, Episcopalians, and others who complained of the intolerance of the Massachusetts authorities. It was represented to him that English subjects had been executed illegally; that the king's name did not appear in the writs; that Episcopalians were not allowed to appeal to the

[1] Philip's Indian name was Metacom. He was called Philip by the white settlers. The position of the Narragansett tribe under their chief Canonchet was in doubt, so the colonists attacked them (December 19, 1675) and utterly defeated them.

king's courts; that money had been coined illegally; that the Navigation Laws had been broken; and that hundreds of other illegal acts had been committed. Charles had no love for Massachusetts, and gladly accepted the opportunity which was now given him to withdraw the charter. In spite of all protests this action was taken in 1684. Before he could form a new government for Massachusetts, Charles the Second died, and his brother, James the Second, the new king, appointed (1686) Sir Edmund Andros[1] as viceroy or governor-general

INDIANS ATTACKING A VILLAGE

over the Dominion of New England, which now included New England, New York, and New Jersey. In 1691 a new charter was given by the English king, William III, who had driven King James from the throne of England. By this charter Maine, Massachusetts, and Plymouth became one province. The religious qualification for voters gave way to a property qualification. Liberty of conscience and of worship

[1] The appointment of Andros destroyed at one blow all the political liberties that the colonists had secured. As viceroy he was an absolute ruler. He abolished the General Court and the town meetings and levied taxes without reference to the people. The revolution of 1688 drove King James the Second from the throne of England and installed William and Mary. The fall of Andros immediately followed the news of the revolution in England. He was imprisoned and later (1690) sent to England.

was granted to all except Catholics.[1] The governor was appointed by the king and the House of Representatives was elected by the colonists. The governor had full veto power over any law that might be passed by the colony. This led to repeated conflicts between the people and the royal governors, and aided in building up the spirit of revolt which resulted later in the Revolution.

89. The Salem Witchcraft, 1692. There had been recurring witchcraft panics in Europe since the fifteenth century, and in England and Scotland there were several in the seventeenth century. In various parts of Massachusetts the delusion appeared, but the most violent outbreak was in Salem in 1692. The children of a Puritan minister claimed to be bewitched by an old colored woman. She confessed, and with the children brought accusations against many people in the parish. This soon produced a reign of terror throughout the colony. No one was safe, and before the panic ended, twenty persons had suffered death.[2] At length a reaction set in, those in prison were released, and a day of fast was appointed.

ANDROS'S DOMINION OF NEW ENGLAND

[1] Some of the most severe penal laws on the pages of history were enacted during the first years of the reign of William and Mary. They may be seen in detail in Blackstone's "Commentaries," Book IV, pp. 55–58.

[2] "It seemed as though the bonds of society were dissolving; nineteen persons had been hanged, one had been pressed to death, and eight lay condemned; a number had fled, but their property had been seized and they were beggars; the prisons were choked, while more than two hundred were accused and in momentary fear of arrest; even two dogs had been killed." — BROOKS ADAMS, "Emancipation of Massachusetts," p. 227

SUMMARY

In 1620 the Pilgrims landed at Plymouth from the *Mayflower*.

In 1628 the Puritans reached Salem and later settled Boston.

In 1633 Roger Williams was driven from the Puritan colony and founded in 1636 the city of Providence.

In 1643 a confederacy of four colonies (Plymouth, Massachusetts Bay, Connecticut, and New Haven) was formed for defense against the Indians, the French, and the Dutch.

In 1656 the Quaker persecution was begun.

In 1676 the war with King Philip ended in his death and the overthrow of the Indian power forever.

In 1686 Andros was appointed viceroy over the Dominion of New England. His power ended in 1690, after James II had lost his crown.

In 1691 a new charter consolidated the colonies of Maine, Massachusetts Bay, and Plymouth into one colony.

In 1692 the Salem witchcraft delusion spread terror throughout the colony.

New Hampshire, 1623

90. Grant to Gorges and Mason. As early as 1603 Captain Martin Pring, with two vessels, explored the harbor now called Portsmouth and sailed up the Piscataqua River. In 1622 Sir Ferdinando Gorges and Captain John Mason obtained from the Council for New England a grant of land between the Merrimack and the Kennebec and extending from the Atlantic to the great river of Canada. This tract was called Laconia "because of the great lakes therein."

91. Settlement of Dover and Portsmouth. Settlements were planted at Dover and at Portsmouth, but little progress was made for many years, the chief occupations of the people being fishing, hunting, and trading with the Indians. In 1629 Mason and Gorges divided their territory. Mason received the portion between the Merrimack and Piscataqua rivers and called it New Hampshire, after Hampshire in England, where he had lived many years. Gorges took the territory between the Piscataqua

and the Kennebec and called it Maine. To his colony Mason sent over farming tools and cattle; but he died in 1635, and for many years the colonists were neglected. In 1638 Reverend John Wheelwright, who had been banished from Massachusetts for his sympathy with Mrs. Anne Hutchinson, settled Exeter. Among the immigrants into this colony were large numbers of Irish, who founded Londonderry (1719). Here the making of linen was introduced.

In 1641 New Hampshire was annexed to Massachusetts. They were separated and joined a number of times, until in 1679 New Hampshire became a royal province. Henceforth the king appointed the governor, and all laws made by the colonists were subject to the approval of the king. In 1741 New Hampshire became once more a separate colony. In respect to Maine, Gorges had obtained in April, 1639, a charter from King Charles which conferred on him the title of "Lord Proprietor of the Province or County of Maine." This charter gave him almost unlimited power and established in the colony the Church of England. The province was divided in two counties, Agamenticus, or York, being the principal settlement of one, and Saco of the other. As early as 1625 a settlement had been made at Pemaquid, where a fort was later erected. In 1632 Portland was founded. Gorges never visited America, and his province was neglected. After 1652 Maine came gradually under the rule of Massachusetts.

In 1677 Massachusetts bought the claims to Maine from the heirs of Gorges for about six thousand dollars. By a new charter granted by William and Mary in 1691 Maine was united to Massachusetts and was controlled by that state until Maine was admitted into the Union in March, 1820.

SUMMARY

In 1603 Martin Pring explored the coast, and in 1622 Gorges and Mason were granted the territory between the Merrimack and the Kennebec. It was called Laconia. In 1629 it was divided, and Mason called his share New Hampshire. Gorges called his territory Maine.

In 1641 New Hampshire and Massachusetts were united.

In 1679 New Hampshire became a royal province.

In 1677 Maine passed under the control of Massachusetts and in 1691 was united to it by a new charter.

In 1719 Londonderry was founded by Irish settlers.

In 1741 New Hampshire became a separate colony.

REVIEW EXAMINATION

1. Explain the division of Jersey into West Jersey and East Jersey. What was the first permanent settlement in the state?

2. Give an account of the first settlement of the Pilgrims in America, touching on location, date, and first agreement as to government.

3. Distinguish between the Pilgrims and the Puritans. What reasons led the Pilgrims to leave Holland?

4. Mention the names of the first two settlements made by the Massachusetts Bay colony. What was (*a*) the character of the settlers; (*b*) their chief reason for coming to America?

5. Give an account of the London Company and the Plymouth Company, and of the settlements made in America under the auspices of each.

6. Mention two facts that show the religious intolerance of the Massachusetts Bay colony, and state two effects of this intolerance on the settlement of New England.

7. Explain the New England Confederation, and state its object. What colonies were denied admission? Why?

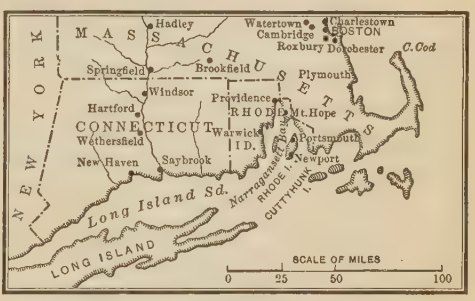
8. Compare the Jamestown colony with the Massachusetts Bay colony in respect to (*a*) character of the settlers; (*b*) reason for settlement; (*c*) religion.

9. After its foundation was New Hampshire always a separate colony?

10. Explain how Maine for some time belonged to Massachusetts. In what year was it finally separated?

Connecticut, 1634

92. The Dutch at Hartford. Foundation of Saybrook. While the Dutch had been extending their settlements to the north on the Hudson and to the south on the Delaware, they were also looking for territory to the eastward, and in 1633 they built a fort where Hartford now stands. In 1634 Wethersfield, the oldest town in Connecticut, was founded by emigrants from Watertown, near Boston. Two years afterwards John Winthrop, Jr., son of the governor, acting as agent of two Puritan noblemen who had obtained a grant of this section, established a fort at the mouth of the river to shut off the Dutch vessels. He called the fort Saybrook in honor of his patrons, Lord Say and Lord Brooke.



SOUTHERN NEW ENGLAND

93. Emigration from Massachusetts. The intensely narrow spirit of the Puritan leaders, the unrestrained power of the magistrates, and the lack of religious freedom in Massachusetts had become distasteful to many of the members. Accordingly, in 1636, a large body of colonists set out from Massachusetts. With their families and household goods they drove the cattle before them and reached the fair and fertile valley of the Connecticut, where they built up the towns of Hartford and Windsor. Saybrook was later (1644) purchased by the Connecticut colony.

94. The Fundamental Orders, 1639. A general convention of the planters of the three towns of Hartford, Windsor, and Wethersfield was held at Hartford, January 14, 1639, and adopted a plan of government called the Fundamental Orders. This union of towns formed the Connecticut colony.

The Fundamental Orders were modeled on the government of Massachusetts, except that the right of voting was not limited to church members, but could be enjoyed by all approved freemen who would take the oath of allegiance. The governor was elected by the freemen, but had to be a member of one of the Congregational churches.

The Fundamental Orders were drawn up in a written constitution, said to be the first popular written constitution in history formed by a people through their representatives as a basis of government. It is important to note that in this constitution there was no mention made either of the king of England or of the English Parliament.

95. The New Haven Settlement. In 1638 another colony was founded by a Puritan minister of the strictest type, John Davenport, assisted by a wealthy London merchant, Theophilus Eaton. Their plan was to establish a colony to be governed on scriptural principles. The place where they settled was called Quinnipiac, and a year later New Haven. The laws of Moses were adopted at the outset for the colony. Only members of the Congregational church could be voters or magistrates. Trial by jury was not allowed, and it was decreed that "the Word of God shall be the only rule in ordering the affairs of government."[1]

Several towns were established near New Haven, and in 1643 New Haven, Milford, Guilford, and Stamford were united in one political community called the New Haven colony. In 1662 this colony was absorbed by Connecticut under a charter from Charles II.[2]

[1] Under these laws there were twelve offenses punishable by death. In England there were over one hundred and sixty, and the number increased until the criminal-law reform early in the last century.

[2] Two of the judges who had condemned Charles I to death had found refuge in New Haven. When Charles II ascended the throne, he ordered them to be delivered up to his officers; but they were concealed by the people, and the search for them was fruitless. This incensed Charles and may have assisted the Connecticut colony in its successful attempt to absorb the New Haven colony.

96. The Pequot War, 1637. The colonists in the meantime had been exposed to a serious danger. In the valley of the river Thames dwelt a powerful tribe of Indians called the Pequot, which repeatedly attacked the settlements in the Connecticut valley. In 1637 a company from Connecticut and Massachusetts, with friendly Mohican and Narragansett Indians, marched to the Pequot fort and attacked it. The Pequot tribe was completely destroyed. The other tribes were so terrified by this crushing defeat that forty years elapsed before the Indians again raised the war cry against the colonists.

97. The Charter and Governor Andros, 1687. The charter of Connecticut had been granted in 1662 by King Charles II. In this charter he had given New Haven to Connecticut. Although the affairs of the Connecticut colony were prosperous, its charter was taken away by King James II when he reached the throne of England. Andros, the royal governor, visited Hartford in October, 1687, to obtain the charter. According to the tradition, the charter had been placed on the table, and while the matter was being discussed, the lights were suddenly extinguished. When the candles were relighted, the charter could not be found. It had been hidden in the hollow trunk of an oak tree, which has since been known as the "Charter Oak." Andros, however, overthrew the charter government. On his downfall the charter was again produced, and under it Connecticut was governed until the Revolution.

SUMMARY

In 1633 the Dutch built a fort at Hartford.

In 1634 Wethersfield, the oldest town in Connecticut, was founded.

In 1635 Hartford and Windsor were settled.

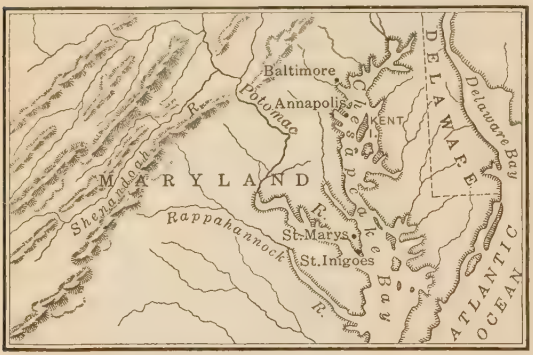
In 1637 the colonists of Connecticut and Massachusetts attacked and completely destroyed the Pequot tribe.

In 1638 New Haven was founded by English Puritans.

In 1639 the Connecticut Constitution, or Fundamental Orders, was drawn up at Hartford.

Maryland, 1634

98. The Position of the Catholics in England. After Virginia became a royal province, Charles I cut off a territory to the north and gave it in 1631 to George Calvert, the first Lord Baltimore. He was a rich nobleman who had been Secretary of State under James I, but had resigned his position in 1625 on his conversion to the Catholic faith.[1] Knowing the fearful hardships of his fellow religionists, he sought to secure a refuge in America for the Catholics of England. During these years the Catholics under the British crown were subject to a series of the most stringent and inhuman penal laws. According to these laws any priest discovered celebrating Mass would be fined two hundred marks[2] and imprisoned for one year, while any person discovered hearing Mass would receive the same imprisonment with a fine of one hundred marks. Persons who refused to attend the services of the Church of England were forbidden to hold any office, to bear arms, or to come within ten miles of London. They were also forbidden to travel more than five miles without a special license or to come into court under a



THE MARYLAND COLONY

[1] The king continued him as a member of his Privy Council and regranted to him the estates which he had forfeited when he became a Catholic. He also raised him to the peerage under the title of Baron Baltimore of Baltimore, a town in the southern part of Ireland.

[2] The old English mark was worth about three dollars and twenty-three cents.

penalty of five hundred dollars. No Catholic could enter the legal profession, the universities, or teach school under penalty of perpetual imprisonment, while any Catholic who sent his child abroad to be educated lost all his legal rights and real estate and was required to pay a fine of five hundred dollars. Any priest or Bishop, born under the British crown, who returned to England from abroad and failed to renounce his

THE SETTLEMENT OF MARYLAND

religion within three days was guilty of high treason, the punishment of which was death.

99. The Grant of Maryland. To give a place of refuge to his persecuted fellow Catholics, George Calvert tried to found a settlement in Newfoundland, but it was too cold. Later he attempted to settle in Virginia, but the colonists there drove him away on account of his Catholic faith. Still determined to carry out his plans, he returned to England and obtained in 1632 from King Charles I a grant of that part of Virginia lying between the Potomac and the fortieth parallel of north latitude. At the request of the king the territory was called

Maryland in honor of his queen, Henrietta Maria.[1] With the active coöperation of the king, it was hoped to build up at once a flourishing colony.

100. The Maryland Charter. Lord Baltimore was given the most extensive rights and privileges ever conferred by a sovereign of England on an English subject. Maryland in fact was almost a limited monarchy, with the proprietor as virtually a king. He was required to pay to the king each year, in token of homage, two Indian arrows and a fifth of all the gold and silver mined. He could coin money, grant titles of nobility, make war and peace, establish courts, appoint judges, and pardon criminals. He was required, however, to summon an assembly of the freemen, who alone could levy taxes, as the charter provided that they could never be taxed by the king; all enactments needed only his signature, and not that of the king, to have the binding effect of law. No law or ordinance, however, could be made contrary to the existing laws of England. Baltimore gave lands to the tenant on very easy terms, requiring as rent only a shilling for fifty acres.[2]

GEORGE CALVERT, FIRST LORD BALTIMORE

[1] Henrietta Maria was a daughter of Henry of Navarre, the first Bourbon King of France. She was a Catholic and sympathized with Calvert's efforts to aid her co-religionists in England.

[2] The Maryland colonists were able to secure cleared land, because the local tribes, on account of the attack of the Susquehannock Indians, were about to move to Virginia and were glad to sell their land. The colonists secured, therefore, in that mild climate a good crop of corn and wheat the first season, and Maryland never suffered from famine as did Virginia and Plymouth.

101. Settlement at St. Marys, 1634. Lord Baltimore died before the charter was signed, and his son, Cecil Calvert, the second Lord Baltimore, carried out his father's plans. With two vessels, in charge of Leonard Calvert (brother of the proprietor), the colonists, two hundred and twenty in number, with two Jesuits (Fathers White and Altham), entered Chesapeake Bay and sailed up the Potomac. At St. Clements Island they landed and took possession. Father White consecrated the soil, and the first Mass in English America was celebrated March 25, 1634. A settlement which they named St. Marys was founded two days later. Land was purchased from the Indians, and this gained their good will at the outset.[1]

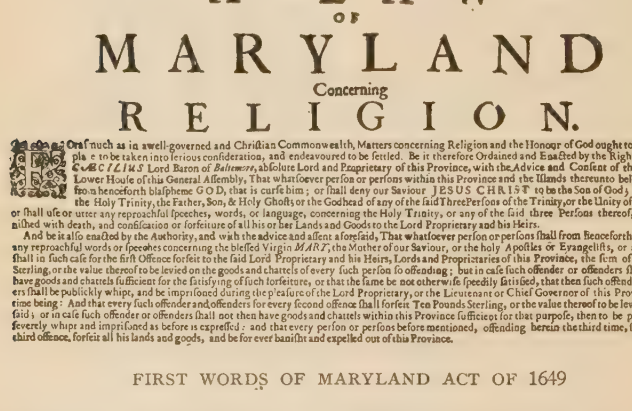
102. Claiborne's Rebellion. Virginia claimed that Maryland was a part of her territory. On Kent Island, in Chesapeake Bay, Claiborne, a Virginian, had established a post for trading with the Indians. He refused to recognize Lord Baltimore's title, and quarrels constantly arose between the followers of Claiborne and the Maryland colonists. This led to bloodshed, until the king of England decided (1638) in favor of the claims of Lord Baltimore. Peace now followed for some years. In 1643 civil war broke out in England between King Charles I and Parliament. King Charles was defeated and executed in 1649, and the Puritans in triumph ruled England under Oliver Cromwell. To destroy the Catholic colony of Maryland the Puritans under Claiborne invaded Maryland, overthrew the government, and drove out (1644) Governor Calvert, the representative of Lord Baltimore. Two years later Calvert returned, defeated the Puritans, and regained the colony.

103. The Toleration Act, 1649. Lord Baltimore had instructed his brother on setting sail to found the colony "to be very careful to preserve unity and peace and to suffer no scandal nor offense to be given to any of the Protestants."

[1] Plantations of a thousand acres were granted as manors. The lord of the manor had certain rights such as nobles enjoyed in England.

That this instruction was followed to the letter is evident from the toleration and peace among the colonists. In 1649, however, it was deemed best to put the principle of religious freedom in the form of law, the first enactment in the land that gave equal rights in religion to all Christians. The act read as follows:

And whereas the enforcing of the conscience in matters of religion hath frequently fallen out to be of dangerous consequence in those commonwealths where it hath been practiced, and for the more quiet



A LAW
OF
MARYLAND
Concerning
RELIGION.

FOrasmuch as in a well-governed and Christian Commonwealth, Matters concerning Religion and the Honour of God ought to be in the first place to be taken into serious consideration, and endeavoured to be settled. Be it therefore Ordained and Enacted by the Right Honourable CECILIUS Lord Baron of *Baltemore*, absolute Lord and Proprietary of this Province, with the Advice and Consent of the Upper and Lower House of this General Assembly, That whatsoever person or persons within this Province and the Islands thereunto belonging, shall from henceforth blaspheme GOD, that is curse him; or shall deny our Saviour JESUS CHRIST to be the Son of God; or shall deny the Holy Trinity, the Father, Son, & Holy Ghost; or the Godhead of any of the said Three Persons of the Trinity, or the Unity of the Godhead, or shall use or utter any reproachful speeches, words, or language, concerning the Holy Trinity, or any of the said three Persons thereof, shall be punished with death, and confiscation or forfeiture of all his or her Lands and Goods to the Lord Proprietary and his Heirs.

And be it also enacted by the Authority, and with the advice and assent aforesaid, That whatsoever person or persons shall from Henceforth use or utter any reproachful words or speeches concerning the blessed Virgin *MARY*, the Mother of our Saviour, or the holy Apostles or Evangelists, or any of them, shall in such case for the first Offence forfeit to the said Lord Proprietary and his Heirs, Lords and Proprietaries of this Province, the sum of Five pounds Sterling, or the value thereof to be levied on the goods and chattels of every such person so offending; but in case such offender or offenders shall not then have goods and chattels sufficient for the satisfying of such forfeiture, or that the same be not otherwise speedily satisfied, that then such offender or offenders shall be publickly whipt, and be imprisoned during the pleasure of the Lord Proprietary, or the Lieutenant or Chief Governor of this Province for the time being: And that every such offender and offenders for every second offence shall forfeit Ten Pounds Sterling, or the value thereof to be levied as aforesaid; or in case such offender or offenders shall not then have goods and chattels within this Province sufficient for that purpose, then to be publickly and severely whipt and imprisoned as before is expressed: and that every person or persons before mentioned, offending herein the third time, shall for such third offence, forfeit all his lands and goods, and be for ever banisht and expelled out of this Province.

FIRST WORDS OF MARYLAND ACT OF 1649

and peaceable government of this province, and the better to preserve mutual love and amity among the inhabitants, no person within this province, professing to believe in Jesus Christ,[1] shall be in any ways troubled, molested, or discountenanced for his or her religion, or in the free exercise thereof.

Under these humane laws the colony greatly flourished. Lord Baltimore invited the oppressed of all lands to join his colony, and in answer to his invitation, says Bancroft, "from France came Huguenots, from Germany, from Holland, from Sweden,

[1] This provision excluded Jews from the suffrage. It was not until 1826 that they were allowed to vote and to hold office.

from Finland, I believe from Piedmont, the children of misfortune sought protection under the tolerant scepter of the Roman Catholic." [1]

104. Puritan Rule in Maryland. Another civil war broke out in 1655, and the Puritans were successful. The Toleration Act was repealed, and Catholics, Quakers, and Baptists were forbidden to practice their religion. Oliver Cromwell, who had become Lord Protector of England, restored the province to Lord Baltimore and reëstablished the Toleration Act. After the death of Cromwell (1658), his son succeeded him, but he was too weak to rule and after a year resigned. Charles II returned from Holland, where he had been in exile, and took the throne of England in 1660. He died in 1685, and his brother James, Duke of York, became king. James II ruled only three years, when he was overthrown, in the English Revolution of 1688, by William of Orange, who had married Mary, the daughter of James II. William and Mary were crowned king and queen of England in 1689.

CHARLES II

105. Repeal of Toleration Act. William and Mary ignored the charter of Maryland and made it a royal province. The proprietary, the third Lord Baltimore, was stripped of practically all his rights. The members of the established Church of England came to Maryland in such numbers that they secured

[1] "Calvert deserves to be ranked among the most wise and benevolent lawgivers of all ages. He was the first in the history of the Christian world to seek for religious security and peace by the practice of justice and not by the exercise of power." — BANCROFT, "United States" (old ed.), Vol. I, p. 244

control, and the Toleration Act was permanently abolished. The persecution of the Catholics at once began. They were forbidden to vote or to hold any office; they were denied the privilege of hearing Mass or holding any religious services.[1] The Church of England was established (1692) by law, and all the inhabitants of the colony taxed for its support. This tax remained in force until the American Revolution.

The land taxes of the Catholics were doubled, and they were compelled to pay tithes amounting to forty pounds of tobacco for the support of the Church of England.

The capital was removed to its present site and called Annapolis, which became a city in 1708.

In 1714 Benedict Leonard Calvert, the fourth Lord Baltimore, renounced his Catholic faith, and to his son, Charles Calvert, the fifth Lord Baltimore, a Protestant, the province was restored in 1715. In 1729 the city of Baltimore was founded. Maryland remained a proprietary colony until the Revolution.

SUMMARY

Lord Baltimore in 1634 founded a colony in the New World for the oppressed Catholics of England.

Claiborne, a Virginian, rebelled against the Baltimore proprietary, but the rebellion failed (1638).

In 1649 the Toleration Act was passed, which granted freedom of worship to all Christians.

In 1655 the Puritans secured the province. It was restored to Lord Baltimore by Cromwell. Under William and Mary Lord Baltimore lost practically all his rights, and the Toleration Act was repealed.

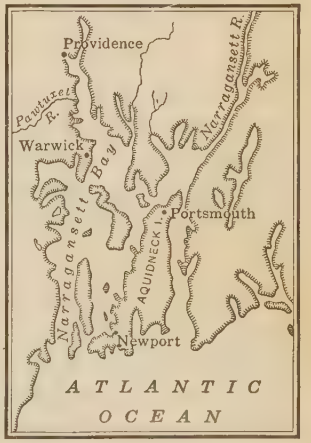
In 1715 the province was restored to the fifth Lord Baltimore.

In 1729 the city of Baltimore was founded.

[1] "Maryland presented the picture of a province founded for the sake of religious opinion by the toil and treasure of Roman Catholics, in which of all who called themselves Christian, none save Roman Catholics were denied toleration." — HAWKS, "Ecclesiastical History of the United States," Vol. II, p. 117

Rhode Island, 1636

106. Founding of Providence. We have already seen that Roger Williams was compelled, in 1635, to flee from the Massachusetts Bay colony. Near Narragansett Bay he began to build a home on the Seekonk River. Scarcely had he done this when the governor of Plymouth requested him to leave, as he was in the territory of that colony. Williams pushed on and, reaching a favorable site, established a settlement which he called Providence.



RHODE ISLAND

107. Settlement of Portsmouth and Newport. In 1638 friends of Anne Hutchinson bought from the Narragansett tribe the island of Aquidneck, afterwards called Rhode Island. Dissensions, however, soon arose, and some of the colonists moved to the southern end of the island and founded a colony which was named Newport. The old settlement was called Portsmouth. These different colonies were united afterwards by a charter which Roger Williams secured (1643) in England, under the title of "The Colony of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations." In 1662 King Charles II granted a new charter which founded firmly the rights of the colonists.

108. Religious Toleration. Roger Williams had suffered so much for his religious opinions that he established his new colony along broad religious lines. The state, he declared, was similar to a ship at sea on which there are many passengers. As on shipboard every passenger is allowed to use his own judgment as to attendance at the ship's prayers, so in the state no one should be compelled to attend religious services against

his will, but should be obedient to the orders of the majority only in civil things. The laws of 1663, therefore, declared "that all men professing Christianity . . . who are obedient to the civil magistrate, though of different judgments in religious affairs, shall be admitted freemen and shall have liberty to choose and be chosen officers in the colony."

From 1719 (when a new arrangement of the laws was made) until the Revolution the Catholics, together with the Jews, were denied the rights of citizenship.

SUMMARY

In 1636 Roger Williams, exiled from Massachusetts, founded the city of Providence. A short time afterward Portsmouth and Newport were founded by the friends of Anne Hutchinson. Roger Williams believed in freedom of worship, and the colony shares with Maryland the honor of establishing the principle of religious freedom.

New Sweden, or Delaware, 1638

109. The Swedes on the Delaware. In 1623 the Dutch West India Company established a trading post on the banks of the Delaware, just below the present site of Philadelphia, and called it Fort Nassau. About the same time Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, formed a company to trade with America. In 1638 the Swedes, though they had no title to the land, erected Fort Christina — named in honor of the queen of Sweden — on the present site of Wilmington, Delaware. This territory was claimed by the Dutch, and in 1655 Stuyvesant, governor of New Amsterdam, appeared with an army of seven hundred men before the fort, which at once surrendered, and New Sweden was at an end.

110. The English Conquest of Delaware. In 1665 the English, who had taken New Netherland from the Dutch, captured Delaware. In 1682 Penn, who desired to give his colony an outlet to the sea, bought Delaware — called also The Three

Lower Counties — from the Duke of York. For many years there was friction between Pennsylvania and Delaware, but after 1703 Delaware was allowed a separate legislature, although it had the same governor as Pennsylvania until the Revolution.

SUMMARY

In 1623 the Dutch established a trading post on the Delaware.

In 1638 the Swedes made the first permanent settlement and named it Christina.

The Dutch captured the colony in 1655 and annexed it to New Amsterdam. It was later (1665) taken by the English.

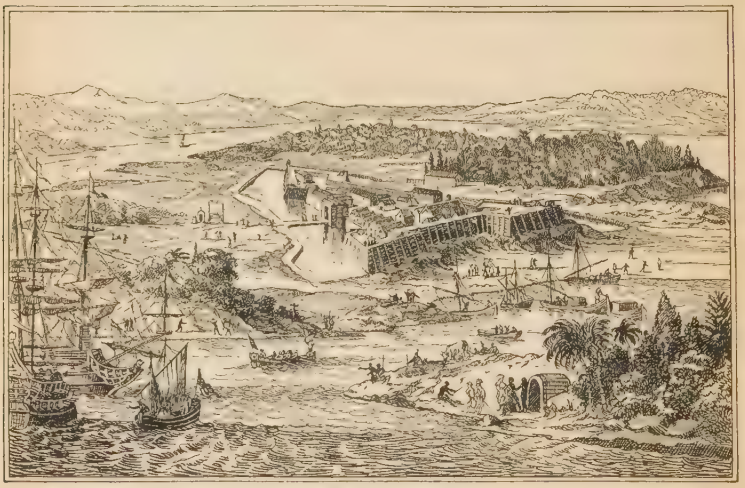
The Carolinas, 1663

111. Grant of Carolina. South of Virginia, St. Augustine was the only thriving settlement on the Atlantic coast. In 1663 Charles II made a grant to eight noblemen, among them being his friends George Monk, Duke of Albemarle, and Edward Hyde, Earl of Clarendon. This grant embraced the fertile tract of land stretching from Virginia to Florida and extending westward to the Pacific. As this land had been called Carolina by Ribaut in honor of Charles IX of France a hundred years before, the new proprietors allowed the name to remain in honor of the king of England. Under their patent the proprietors were given most sweeping powers.

112. Early Settlements. Foundation of Charleston. The early settlements which had been made on the Chowan River were formed (1663) into a colony and named Albemarle.

In 1665 a wealthy planter, Sir John Yeamans, founded a colony on the Cape Fear River. It was called Clarendon, after one of the proprietors, but it was soon abandoned. In 1670 emigrants sent by the proprietors settled near the junction of the Ashley and Cooper rivers, but ten years later, in 1680, they moved to the tract of land between these rivers and established the city of Charleston.

113. Locke's Fundamental Constitutions. Among the proprietors was Ashley, later known by his title of Lord Shaftesbury. His secretary was John Locke, afterwards famous as an English philosopher. Locke drew up a constitution for the colony which was called the Fundamental Constitutions, or Grand Model. This scheme of government hoped to transplant to America the aristocratic ideas of Europe. In order to avoid



CHARLESTON IN 1673

"erecting a numerous democracy" it provided for a carefully graded society from the higher nobility down to serfs attached to the soil. It decreed that no colonist could vote unless he owned fifty or more acres of land, and that no settler could leave the land without permission of the proprietor. It pretended to give religious freedom, while it denied that freedom to Catholics and established the Church of England as that of the state.[1] The settlers, breathing the free air of the New

[1] By the Act of 1704, to be a member of the assembly one must belong to the Church of England. The proprietors ordered the new city founded here to be called Charles-Town.

World, laughed at the scheme, and the Grand Model was a dismal failure. Its only effect was to inspire contempt for all forms of government.

Some years later the colonists obtained the right to make their own laws, while the proprietors were to receive an annual rent of a halfpenny per acre.

As slaves were especially valuable for the cultivation of rice and indigo,[1] the two leading products of southern Carolina, the slave trade in this part of the colony became very active. Large plantations were developed in the fertile rice lands. This section became in consequence very prosperous, and Charleston was the seat of many wealthy homes. In northern Carolina the land was not adapted to rice and there were few large plantations. Small farms were common with less wealth and prosperity. From the pine forests of this section large quantities of turpentine and pitch were secured.

The principal settlers in the Carolinas were English, French, Irish, Scotch, and Germans. Under Baron de Graffenried the Germans settled Newbern.

After Charleston was founded, a separate governor generally ruled the northern and southern parts of Carolina. Troubles constantly arose, as the colonists rebelled against the rule of the proprietors and their governors. Finally, in 1729, Carolina came under the control of the king, and being divided into North and South Carolina, the two parts became separate royal colonies, subject to a royal governor, appointed by the king of England.

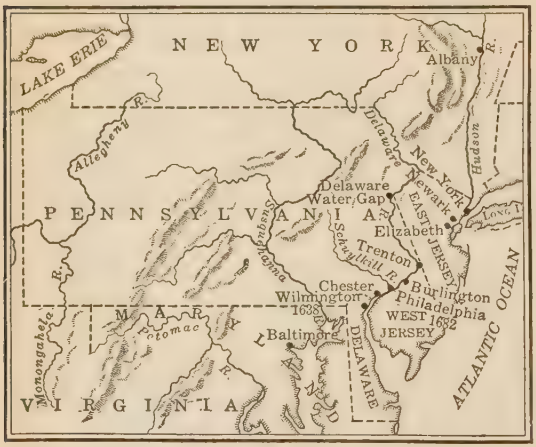
SUMMARY

In 1663 King Charles II granted to a body of noblemen the tract of land named Carolina. The constitution framed for the colony and called the Grand Model was written by Locke, the philosopher. The plan was a failure. In 1729 North and South Carolina were separated and became royal colonies.

[1] South Carolina has continued to be a great rice center. Indigo, however, is no longer cultivated.

Pennsylvania, 1681

114. The Grant to Penn. One of the foremost men among the Quakers in England was William Penn, who had for some years been keenly interested in colonization in America.[1] His father had been a distinguished admiral, to whom King Charles owed about eighty thousand dollars for his services to his country. After his father's death Penn asked from the king the grant of a tract of land in America to balance the debt. The king gladly consented to free himself in this easy manner, and granted, in 1681, a charter for a tract forty-eight thousand square miles in extent, fronting on the Delaware River and practically comprising the present state of Pennsylvania. To this province the name *Pennsylvania* (Penn's woods), after Admiral Penn, was given.



THE PENNSYLVANIA COLONY

Penn desired to establish a free commonwealth where not only the persecuted Quakers[2] but other colonists might enjoy freedom, at the same time rendering strict obedience to the civil authorities. "Liberty without obedience," declared Penn, "is confusion, and obedience without liberty is slavery."

[1] While a student at Oxford, Penn, being a Quaker, had refused to attend the religious services of the University. In consequence he was expelled.

[2] The movement of the Quakers at this time is accounted for by the stringent laws which Parliament passed in the early years of the reign of Charles II to enforce uniformity in attendance at the Church of England.

115. Penn's Frame of Government. In 1681 Penn drew up a "Frame of Government" for his province. Although he was the owner of all the land, he declared that the government should be for the benefit of all the people. He gave the colonists, therefore, very large powers of self-government through a Council and an Assembly of the freemen. Each settler obtained one hundred acres of land for fifty dollars. It was provided that no person believing in one God should be molested on account of religion, but only those who were Christians could take part in the government. The test oaths against their religion made it impossible for Catholics to take part in the government. Complete religious liberty never existed in colonial Pennsylvania.

It also provided that the Indians should be treated with justice and kindness, that every child should be taught a trade, and that criminals in jails should be employed in some useful occupation. He abolished the death penalty except for murder and treason.

In October, 1681, three shiploads of Quakers left England, and in 1682 Penn himself sailed with a hundred emigrants. He landed at Newcastle, in the territory which is now Delaware, but which had been purchased by him from the Duke of York in 1681. He was cordially welcomed by the Swedes and Dutch who had settled there.

116. Philadelphia founded. Treaty with the Indians. A city was marked out on the Schuylkill, in 1682, to which was given the name *Philadelphia*, a Greek word which means "brotherly love." Penn's high character and the rather liberal laws regarding religion attracted settlers in great numbers from various countries of Europe. Among the settlers were Welsh, Swedes, Germans, and Irish.[1]

[1] The Welsh settled west of Philadelphia, and many names, like Bryn Mawr, Merion, and Radnor, show the so-called Welsh Tract. The Germans were largely Mennonites from the Rhine country. About 1683 Pastorius founded Germantown. Here, in 1688, was drawn up what is claimed to be the first public protest against slavery in the present limits of the United States. The Irish went farther westward beyond the Welsh and German settlements.

Soon after his arrival, Penn, mindful of his Quaker beliefs, made a visit to the Indian wigwams to secure the good will of the red men. In 1682 a treaty of peace was made with the Delaware Indians. Standing under a wide-spreading elm, Penn and the Indians clasped hands and made solemn promises of friendship. For sixty years, while the Quakers had control of Pennsylvania, this peace remained unbroken, and Penn was always loved and trusted by the red men. The Indian record of this treaty is a belt of wampum, which may be seen to this day in Philadelphia. So rapidly did the colony grow that three years after Penn's arrival it contained almost eight thousand inhabitants, and Philadelphia was the largest city in the colonies at the outbreak of the Revolution. Penn made two visits to his colony, leaving for the last time in 1701. Although troubles constantly arose between the colonists and the governors, the colony prospered.

PENN'S MEETING WITH THE INDIANS

SUMMARY

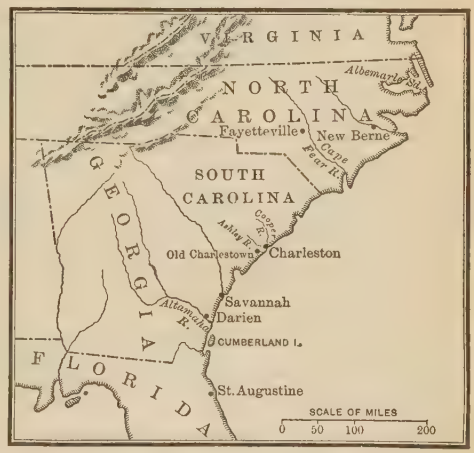
The colony of Pennsylvania was granted to William Penn, a Quaker, by Charles II, king of England.[1] In 1681 the first colonists arrived, and Philadelphia was founded in 1682. A treaty was made with the Indians and faithfully kept while the Quakers were in power.

[1] The boundary line of Pennsylvania and Maryland became the famous "Mason and Dixon's line." It was so called from its surveyors.

Georgia, 1733

117. The Grant to Oglethorpe. General James Oglethorpe, an English soldier, obtained from George II a grant of land between the Savannah and the Altamaha rivers to establish a home for the poor debtors of England. Under the English law, for a debt of even one shilling a man could be imprisoned until the debt was paid, and the jails were filled with the unfortunates who had not the means to pay. Thousands died before relief came.

Oglethorpe formed a company and made arrangements to pay these debts, to free the debtors, and to send them to America. He was assisted by hundreds of charitable people in England and by a grant of fifty thousand dollars from Parliament.



THE SOUTHERN COLONIES

118. Settlement of Savannah, 1733. In November, 1732, Oglethorpe sailed with one hundred and twenty persons to the Savannah River, where he laid the foundation of a town, which he named Savannah. A treaty was made with the Indians, the land purchased from them, and their good will secured. The laws of the colony provided that the trustees should make all the laws and should rule the colony for twenty-one years, at the end of which time the king should decree what form of government it was to receive. The laws forbade negro slavery and the importation of spirituous liquors. They permitted each colonist to rent fifty acres of land.

No one, however, could secure more than five hundred acres of land. Catholics were forbidden to settle there, and the Church of England was established, the people being taxed to support it.

119. War with Spain. A second reason for the settlement of Georgia was the desire to check any northward movement of the Spaniards from Florida. In 1739 war was declared between England and Spain, and Oglethorpe led an expedition into Florida against the Spaniards, but he was defeated. The Spaniards then took the offensive and, entering Georgia, attacked Oglethorpe at Frederica in 1742, but they were repulsed.

Oglethorpe led another invasion of Florida, but it was without important results. While the English military movements were not successful, they had at least established Georgia securely as an English colony, and the Spaniards were never able to push their boundary northward beyond Florida.

Under Oglethorpe's laws Georgia made slow progress. Discontent was apparent everywhere, as the land laws were unsatisfactory. In 1752 the trustees surrendered the colony to the crown and it became a royal colony. Georgia was the last colony planted by England in the present limits of the United States.

SUMMARY

In 1733 Georgia was founded by Oglethorpe, partly as a refuge for the debtors in English prisons and partly as a check to the Spanish in Florida. Catholics were forbidden to enter the colony.

Savannah, the first settlement, was made in 1733.

In 1752 the trustees surrendered the colony and it became a royal colony. It was the last colony founded by the English in the present limits of the United States.

Dates to be remembered:

1607. Founding of Jamestown, first permanent English settlement in America.

1619. First Representative Assembly in America. Introduction of negro slavery into English America.

1620. Foundation of the Plymouth colony.

Important dates for reference:

1630. The Massachusetts Bay Company founds a colony at Boston.
1634. St. Marys is settled by Lord Baltimore.
1636. Connecticut is settled by emigrants from Massachusetts. Roger Williams founds Rhode Island.
1638. New Haven colony founded by Puritans from England.
1643. The New England Confederation.
1649. The Maryland Toleration Act.
1664. English conquest of New Netherland.
1670. Charleston is founded by the proprietors of the Carolinas.
1681. Settlement of Pennsylvania by the Quakers.
1688. The Revolution in England.
1733. Georgia is founded by Oglethorpe.

Persons to know about:

John Smith, Myles Standish, Roger Williams, Hudson, Stuyvesant, George Calvert (Lord Baltimore), Penn, Bacon, Dongan, Leisler, Andros, King Philip, Massasoit, Powhatan, Oglethorpe.

Map work:

On a map show in different colors, or by different markings, Spanish, French, Dutch, Swedish, and English spheres of influence in America.

Locate Jamestown, Chesapeake Bay, Scrooby, Plymouth (England), Amsterdam (Holland), Cape Cod, Plymouth in New England, Providence, Boston, Hudson River, Fort Orange (Albany), New Amsterdam, St. Marys, Baltimore, Charleston, Savannah, Philadelphia, Hartford.

REVIEW EXAMINATION

1. Show by a map the territory in what is now the United States claimed in 1640 by each of the following nations: English, French, Spanish, Dutch, Swedish.

2. State how each of the following aided in the settlement of the American colonies: (*a*) John Winthrop; (*b*) Lord Baltimore; (*c*) William Penn; (*d*) James Oglethorpe.

3. Name (*a*) the charter colonies; (*b*) the proprietary colonies; (*c*) the royal colonies.

4. Explain the Fundamental Orders of Connecticut. Why are they so important?

5. Account for the following names: Florida, Pennsylvania, Baltimore, Virginia, Carolina.

6. Give an account of the settlement of Maryland, touching on (*a*) name and purpose of its founder; (*b*) the Toleration Act; (*c*) Claiborne's Rebellion.

7. Explain the difference between the government of Virginia and that of Maryland.

8. State in regard to the Quakers (*a*) why they were persecuted; (*b*) what colony they founded.

9. State with reference to the settlement of Pennsylvania (*a*) the purpose of its founder; (*b*) kind of government established; (*c*) results of the "great treaty."

10. Explain how negro slavery began in the colonies. Why did it increase more rapidly in the South than in the North?

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CHAPTER VI

FRENCH EXPLORATIONS

120. The Missionaries. We have already seen (see sect. 37) how the French established a settlement on the St. Lawrence in 1608 and called it Quebec. It was a point of the greatest military value, on the highway to the Great Lakes and the valley of the Mississippi. Champlain, recognizing the importance of gaining the sympathy of the Indians, invited the Franciscans from France to establish missions among the tribes. One of these Franciscans, Father Le Caron, penetrated as far as Lake Huron,[1] where he established a mission in 1615.[2]

In 1625 the Jesuits came to New France. They traversed the forest and established missions during the next fifty years at Sault Ste. Marie, Green Bay, St. Ignace, Kaskaskia, and many other places.[3] Father Ménard, in 1661, explored the southern shore of Lake Superior. He lost his life in attempting to visit some Christian Hurons. Father Allouez[4] at once took up the work and established a mission at La Pointe, on one of the Apostle Islands, near the present site of Ashland, Wisconsin. He was later joined by Father Dablon, superior of

[1] Lake Huron and Lake Ontario were discovered in 1615, Lake Superior in 1616, and Lake Michigan in 1634. Lake Erie was probably discovered in 1640.

[2] Jean Nicolet, a brave Norman, who came to New France in 1618, explored the region around Lake Huron and Lake Michigan from 1634 to 1640.

[3] "Thus did the religious zeal of the French," says Bancroft, "bear the cross to the banks of the St. Mary and the confines of Lake Superior and look wistfully toward the homes of the Sioux in the valley of the Mississippi, five years before the New England Eliot had addressed a tribe of Indians that dwelt within six miles of Boston Harbor."

[4] In 1899 the State Historical Society of Wisconsin erected a tablet at De Pere to the memory of Father Allouez, the founder of Wisconsin's first Indian missions. The place was originally named Rapides des Pères (Rapids of the Fathers).

the Canadian missions, and by the great missionary whose name will forever adorn the pages of our history — Father James Marquette.

121. Jolliet and Marquette explore the Mississippi, 1673. Frontenac, the governor of New France, desired to have the Mississippi River explored and to find perhaps in this river the route to the South Sea. He chose Louis Jolliet,[1] a Montreal trader, for the enterprise. In May, 1673, Jolliet, with Father Marquette (the Jesuit missionary) and five companions, left St. Ignace Mission in north Michigan to seek a great river to the west, of which they had heard many wonderful stories from the Indians. Dragging their light canoes up the rapids of the Fox River, they crossed Lake Winnebago and soon discovered the Wisconsin River. Drifting down its beautiful waters, on June 17, 1673, a month after their departure, at the spot where Prairie du Chien now stands, they entered the great river called by the Indians Mississippi, but named Conception by Father Marquette. They sailed the majestic river, passed the Ohio, and on the way told the native tribes the truths of Christianity. One month after entering the Mississippi they reached the spot where, according to tradition, De Soto had died one hundred and thirty-one years before. Fearing to fall into the hands of the Spaniards or of hostile Indians, they set out on the return journey. They now felt assured that the Mississippi River emptied into the Gulf of Mexico and did not wish to run the risk of having the fruits of their expedition lost through their death or capture.

Ascending the Illinois River, Father Marquette ministered to the Kaskaskias. Thence pushing onward, they entered Lake Michigan and reached Green Bay in September, having traveled no less than two thousand five hundred miles in their light canoes.[2]

[1] The explorer himself wrote his name Jolliet. The city named in his honor is spelled Joliet.

[2] The return route of Jolliet and Father Marquette was up the Illinois River to the Des Plaines. Paddling up this stream they came to a portage, about a mile and a half in width, which led them to Lake Michigan. This portage is the site of the present city of Chicago. It is interesting to note

Jolliet and a few companions returned to Montreal.[1] One year later Father Marquette set out again to establish a mission among the Kaskaskias. Scarcely had he reached their village when he fell ill, and desiring to pass his last hours among his faithful companions at St. Ignace, he started homeward. But the days of the saintly explorer and missionary were numbered.

JOLLIET AND MARQUETTE ON THE MISSISSIPPI

While his companions were trying to hurry him upon his journey, he died on the shore of Lake Michigan[2] on the 19th of May, 1675, thanking God that he was permitted to die in the wilderness, a member of the Jesuit Order.

that Father Marquette wrote: "It would only be necessary to make a canal by cutting through but half a league of prairie to pass from the foot of the Lake of Illinois (Michigan) to the River St. Louis (Des Plaines)." Two hundred and twenty-five years later this canal, called the Chicago Drainage Canal, was dug.

[1] Jolliet's canoe was upset in the Lachine Rapids, and he barely escaped with his life. All his papers and maps describing his great journey were lost, but Father Marquette wrote a narrative which appeared in Paris in 1681.

[2] His death occurred near the present site of Ludington. Later his body was transferred to the mission of St. Ignace, where a monument marks his last resting place. A statue of Father Marquette has been placed in the Capitol at Washington by the state of Wisconsin.

122. Frontenac's Plans. In 1673 the new governor of Canada, Count de Frontenac, took decisive steps to control for France the fur trade of the Great Lakes and the West. With a large force of French and Indians he went to the outlet of Lake Ontario on the site of the present city of Kingston, where he erected a fort, which he called Fort Frontenac. Here he met a delegation of sixty Iroquois chiefs, whom he had invited to make a treaty. A great feast was spread and the treaty was made. The tireless Frontenac now set on foot plans to control Lake Erie, and selected as the leader of the expedition La Salle, who was commander of Fort Frontenac.

123. La Salle journeys Westward. In 1679 La Salle erected a blockhouse near the mouth of the Niagara River. Dragging tools, ropes, and canoes up the steep bank around the falls, he built on Lake Erie a vessel which he named the *Griffin*.[1] It was La Salle's purpose not only to secure the fur trade but also to explore the Great Lakes and the Mississippi River.[2] La Salle sailed through Lakes Erie, Huron, and Michigan and touched at St. Ignace. Passing on to Green Bay, he stocked the *Griffin* with furs and despatched the vessel back to Fort Frontenac for provisions. La Salle sent one of his companions, Accau, with Father Hennepin, a Franciscan, to explore the upper Mississippi River. In a few weeks they fell into the hands of the Sioux Indians, who led them captive to the site of the present city of St. Paul.[3] Father Hennepin named the raging cascade here Falls of St. Anthony in honor of the great saint of his Order ;[4] here, about one hundred and sixty

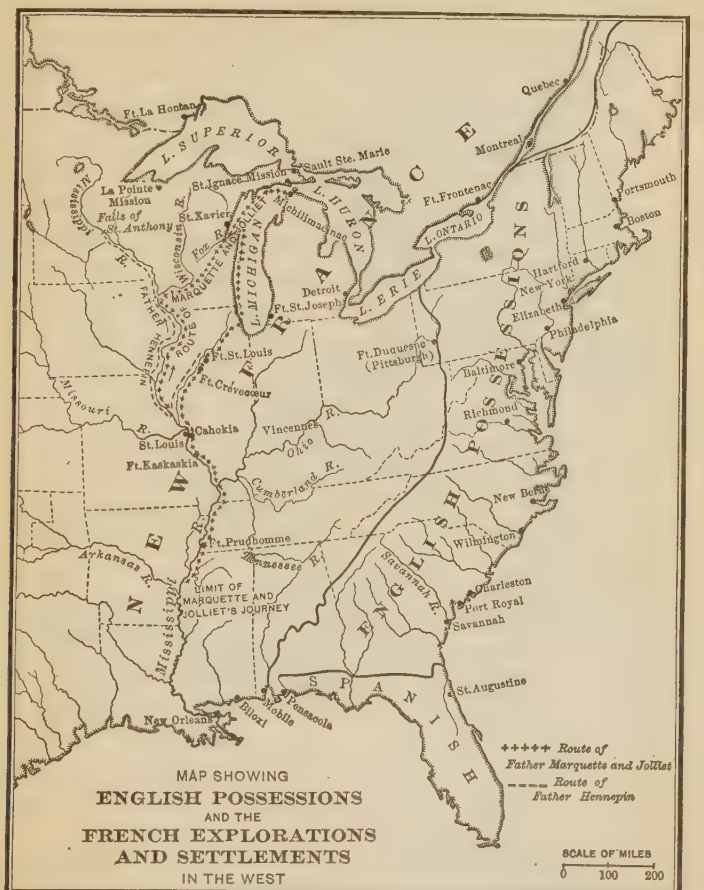
[1] Amid the booming of cannon and the singing of the Te Deum by the Franciscans the first ship to sail the Great Lakes rode proudly upon the waters of Lake Erie.

[2] The English founded, in 1670, the Hudson Bay Company, which gradually established posts throughout the wilderness of the North. This action was the first step in heading off the growing power of New France.

[3] Father Galtier here erected (1841) a little chapel dedicated to St. Paul. It was from this chapel that the city of St. Paul received its name.

[4] St. Anthony of Padua. It was named, Father Hennepin says, "in gratitude for the favors done me by the Almighty through the intercession of that great saint."

years later, the great cities of St. Paul and Minneapolis arose. Father Hennepin and his companions were soon rescued by



the fur trader Du Lhut (or Duluth as the name is now spelled) and finally reached Montreal in safety.

La Salle, with fourteen men in four canoes, sailed southward and built a fort at the mouth of the St. Joseph River, which he called Fort Miami. Ascending the St. Joseph River to the

portage at South Bend,[1] he crossed to the Kankakee, drifted down this stream, and built a fort, which he called Crèvecœur.[2] Here he waited for tidings from the *Griffin*, but they never came.[3] He determined, therefore, to leave Crèvecœur in charge of his friend, Henri de Tonty, and to return to Fort Frontenac, a thousand miles away. In the midst of winter, with only five companions, he turned backward on his fearful journey. He reached the fort in May, gathered new supplies, and returned with twenty-five companions. He found Fort Crèvecœur in ruins and no trace of Tonty and his companions. After searching in vain for his friend, he sailed down the river to the mouth of the Illinois, and before him spread the great Mississippi, which Jolliet and Marquette had explored seven years before.

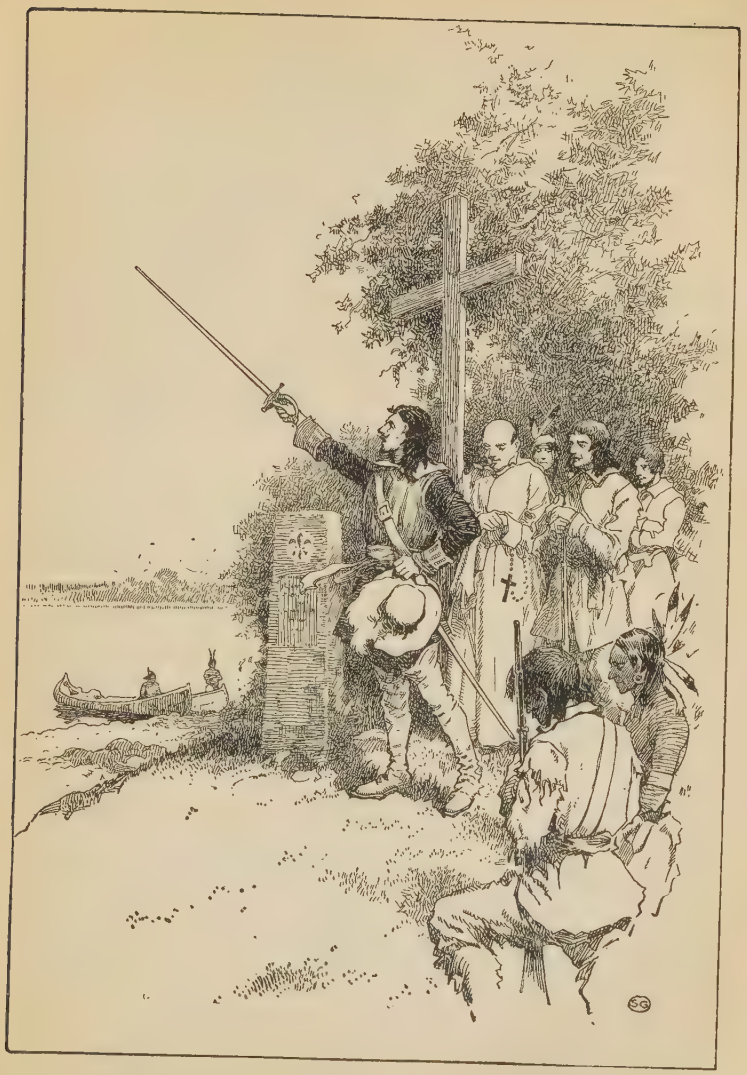
He left a letter tied to a tree and hoped that Tonty might find it. Then returning to Fort Miami, he was compelled to spend the winter there. During this time he made friends among the Indian tribes. In May he returned to St. Ignace, where, to his inexpressible delight, he met Tonty.

124. Further Explorations of La Salle, 1682. His Death. La Salle was not yet satisfied. He pushed on to Montreal, secured new supplies, and returned to Fort Miami. With fifty-four companions he again sailed down the Illinois. Entering the Mississippi, he passed the mouths of the Missouri and the Red River, and in April, 1682, reached the mouth of the Mississippi. Here he erected a cross and a column to which he fastened a metal plate bearing the arms of France and the date. Claiming all the land drained by the river for the king

[1] Near this place was founded, in 1842, the University of Notre Dame by the Fathers of the Holy Cross. Here in the early days was a center of missionary work among the Potawatami and the Miami tribes of Indians.

[2] *Crèvecœur* (krave kerr′) means "heartbreak" in French, but this fort was probably so named in honor of Fort Crèvecœur in the Netherlands, that had been captured by the king of France eight years before.

[3] The *Griffin* was lost with all its crew and its valuable cargo of furs. As if to add to La Salle's misfortunes, a vessel with supplies for him was wrecked with total loss in the lower St. Lawrence River. La Salle, alone of his countrymen, realized the wonderful agricultural possibilities of the Mississippi Valley.



LA SALLE AT THE MOUTH OF THE MISSISSIPPI

of France, he named this vast region Louisiana in honor of his sovereign, Louis XIV. "New France was now founded with its two heads, one in the canebrakes of Louisiana and the other in the snows of Canada," says Parkman ("La Salle," p. 287).

La Salle soon sailed for France to tell the king of the wonderful country he had explored and the necessity of colonizing it. The king agreed with him, and La Salle returned in 1684 with an expedition of four ships. In passing he missed the mouths of the Mississippi and landed at Matagorda Bay in Texas, four hundred miles west of that river. For two years he searched in vain for the Mississippi and was murdered by some of his followers, March 19, 1687, while trying to go overland to Canada. Most of the colony perished later at the hands of the Indians.

125. Founding of Mobile and New Orleans. In 1699 Iberville,[1] who had obtained permission from the king of France to found a city at the mouth of the Mississippi, built a fort at Biloxi. He entered the Mississippi and explored its course for several days. In 1702 Mobile was founded. In 1718 Bienville, a brother of Iberville, founded the city of New Orleans. The building of this city controlled for France the great Mississippi River system.[2]

126. Settlement of Duluth and Detroit. In the meantime the French had been active in the North. Du Lhut founded a post which has since been named Duluth in his honor. In 1701 Cadillac built a fort on the strait which connects Lake Erie with Lake Huron and called it Detroit, or the "Strait," as the word means in French. Inside the fort houses were built. The Indians were invited to live near by, that the

[1] Charles le Moyne, a captain of militia of Quebec, had two sons, — Pierre le Moyne, commonly known as Iberville, and Jean Baptiste le Moyne, who was called Bienville. Iberville had fought with great ability against the English.

[2] In 1727 there was founded by the Ursuline Nuns in New Orleans the first school under the direction of Sisters in the United States. The Ursuline Academy is probably the oldest female school in the present limits of the United States.

fort might become a center of fur trade. A year later Vincennes was founded. The French pushed beyond the Mississippi. In 1743 Verendrye went as far westward as the present state of Montana and, first of white men, saw the towering snow-capped peaks of the Rocky Mountains. It was, however, the establishment of military posts throughout this vast territory of the Mississippi basin that eventually brought on a life and death struggle between the English and the French.

127. French and English Colonization. In this struggle the two systems of colonial government — the French and the English — would be brought to a test. In the English colonies the settlers were increasing by thousands yearly. They brought from England with them their families, took homesteads, and to a certain extent enjoyed self-government through their representative colonial assemblies. As few measures were offered to England for the approval of the king, the colonists became more and more self-reliant and independent. Without realizing it they were preparing the way for the American Revolution.

In New France the king of France was the sole master. Through the governors and other officers appointed by him he ruled with absolute power, and the French colonists never secured even to the smallest degree a share in the government of New France. In the vast area from the mouth of the St. Lawrence to the delta of the Mississippi there were only twelve thousand Frenchmen. Few families had come from France to make their homes in the New World. The French settlements outside the missions were merely forts and trading posts, and the inhabitants for the most part were soldiers and fur-traders. In the next chapter we shall see how the widely scattered French forces were brought face to face, with fatal results in war, with the rapidly growing permanent settlements of the English colonies. In these colonies there were at this time almost two hundred thousand colonists, settled in a compact territory sixteen times as many as in the entire widespread area of New France.

SUMMARY

In 1673 Jolliet and Father Marquette explored the Mississippi, proving that it emptied into the Gulf of Mexico.

La Salle launched the first vessel on the Great Lakes in 1679.

La Salle reached the mouth of the Mississippi in 1682 and claimed its entire basin for France. He named it Louisiana.

Iberville founded Mobile in 1702.

In 1718 New Orleans was founded by Bienville, a brother of Iberville.

Persons to know about:

Jolliet, Marquette, La Salle, Hennepin, Frontenac, Bienville, Cadillac.

Map work:

Trace the route of La Salle from Montreal to the mouth of the Mississippi River. Find on the map Mackinac, Green Bay, Prairie du Chien, Des Plaines River, St. Paul, Duluth, New Orleans.

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Sources. HART, *Contemporaries*, Vol. II, p. 316 (Danger to English from French Mississippi Settlements); p. 320 (The Fur Trade).

Fiction. CATHERWOOD, M. H., *The Story of Tonty. Romance of Dollard* (interesting tales of La Salle and French Canada).

REVIEW EXAMINATION

1. Cartier explored the St. Lawrence in 1534, but the first permanent French settlement was not made until 1608. Mention the circumstances that delayed French settlement in North America.

2. What was the importance of La Salle's expedition to the mouth of the Mississippi? Describe briefly the ceremony of taking possession of the Louisiana country.

3. What important fact was established by the expedition of Jolliet and Marquette?

4. What famous falls were discovered by Father Hennepin? Why was the city of St. Paul so named?

5. Who explored the Far West? Where were missions established?

CHAPTER VII

"The firing of a gun in the backwoods of North America brought on a conflict which drenched Europe in blood." — MACAULAY

THE WARS OF THE ENGLISH AND THE FRENCH IN AMERICA

128. King William's War,[1] 1689–1697. It will be remembered (see sect. 62) that in the charters the grants of most of the colonies stretched from sea to sea. The French had now taken possession of the Mississippi Valley, a territory which was claimed by the English. There could be only one result from disputes about this territory, — war, which was declared in 1689. Another cause for war was the fact that James II, who had fled from England, had taken refuge in France, and the king of France was striving to replace him on the throne. Count Frontenac was sent to America to look after the French interests. He at once planned to capture New York. The Iroquois were bitter foes of the French, while the Algonquin were their stanch friends. On his arrival Frontenac learned that the Iroquois had invaded Canada, besieged Montreal, and had burned captives at the stake with fiendish cruelty. It was now the turn of the French and their Indian allies. In February, 1690, they swept southward, surprised

[1] So called from William III, who at that time sat on the throne of England. As stadholder of Holland, William had fought Louis XIV of France. Louis took up the cause of James II, the deposed king of England. As soon as William secured the crown of England he sought to curb the rising power of France by forming an alliance of England, Holland, Spain, and the German Empire and declaring war on France. This war was waged largely in the Netherlands, on the seas, and in North America. After about seven years it ended in the Peace of Ryswick, so called from a town in Holland. Both sides gave up whatever territory they had gained. William was acknowledged as king of England. Spain now left the alliance with England and soon joined with France.

and captured Schenectady, burned the town, and massacred the inhabitants.[1] Now followed a period of the most horrible warfare. Salmon Falls in New Hampshire, York and Fort Loyal (now Portland) in Maine, Groton and Haverhill in Massachusetts were attacked and many of the inhabitants massacred. In 1690 New England organized an expedition of two thousand militia

COLONISTS CAPTURED BY THE INDIANS

under Sir William Phipps, which captured Port Royal, Acadia, but it was recaptured the following year by the French. The war closed in 1697 by the treaty of Ryswick. Neither side had gained or lost any valuable territory.

129. Queen Anne's War, or the War of the Spanish Succession,[2] 1702–1713. King William died in 1702, and Anne, his

[1] In this year (1690) the first colonial congress ever held in America met in New York City under Leisler to arrange an expedition against the French in Canada. This congress is important, as it marked the beginning of colonial coöperation (see sect. 75).

[2] This war was so called because the European nations objected to the attempt of Louis XIV to place his grandson on the throne of Spain, which was vacant. England, Holland, Spain, and the German States were allied against Louis, who was defeated and signed a peace treaty at Utrecht in 1713.

NORTH AMERICA AT THE BEGINNING OF THE WARS OF THE FRENCH AND ENGLISH IN NORTH AMERICA

sister-in-law, became queen of England.[1] War was renewed between France and England. The Indians spread death and destruction on all sides. They attacked Deerfield in 1704 and Haverhill in 1708, putting to death the inhabitants. Two years

[1] King William had married Mary, the daughter of James II. On the death of King William, Anne, who was the second daughter of James II, succeeded to the throne.

later an expedition from Boston captured Port Royal (which had been returned to the French at the close of King William's War) and changed its name to Annapolis in honor of the queen.

A force was led in 1711 against Quebec. Many of the ships were wrecked in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and the expedition returned an utter failure. The war ended in 1713. In the treaty of peace signed at Utrecht (1713) the French gave up Acadia, which passed for good to the English. They named it Nova Scotia. This cession was the first permanent step toward the final conquest of New France. To the English were ceded also Newfoundland and the Hudson Bay territory. The French also agreed that all the Indians of the Iroquois confederation should be considered subjects of Great Britain.[1]

QUEEN ANNE

130. King George's War, or the War of the Austrian Succession,[2] 1744–1748. Peace lasted for thirty years, when war was again declared. George II was now king of England. The principal point of attack was Louisburg, a strong fortress on the southeast coast of Cape Breton Island. A union of forces from New Hampshire, Connecticut, Rhode Island, and Massachusetts, to the number of four thousand, sailed against this massive granite fortification. After a siege of a few weeks it

[1] This provision gave England an opportunity later to claim the entire country over which the Iroquois roamed as English territory.

In 1744, at a great council held at Lancaster, Pennsylvania, the Iroquois made a grant to the English of all the Ohio valley north of the Ohio River.

[2] In 1740 Emperor Charles VI of Austria died and his daughter, Maria Theresa, Queen of Hungary and Bohemia, laid claim to her father's domains. Holland, Hanover, and England were united on the side of Maria Theresa. France, Prussia, Bavaria, Saxony, and Spain opposed her and sought to divide the empire of Austria. In this war was fought the celebrated battle of Fontenoy.

was captured in June, 1745. Three years later, by the treaty of peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, Louisburg was returned to the French,[1] to the great disappointment of the colonists, who felt their interests had been sacrificed to those of England.

131. The French and Indian War, 1754–1763. We now approach the last great conflict between the French and English in the New World, which was but a part of the world-wide struggle between these great nations.[2]

The French had command of the great waterways, the St. Lawrence and the Mississippi. A chain of forts had been established along the St. Lawrence and the Great Lakes, on the Wabash and Illinois rivers, and down the Mississippi to its mouth, where the flag of France waved over the city of New Orleans. That line of forts — Detroit, St. Joseph, Vincennes, Cahokia, Kaskaskia, Chartres, New Orleans — gave the French control of the vast tract called Louisiana. They were now taking possession, as we shall see, of the Ohio valley in the name of Louis XV, and were building forts along the headwaters of the Ohio, beside the Allegheny River, on Lake Erie, and at Niagara. The French had the sympathy and support of the entire Algonquian family, but the Iroquois were held for the English by Sir William Johnson.[3] The English-speaking colonists at this time (1750) numbered a million and a quarter, while there were only eighty thousand in all New France. The English were settled for the most part along the Atlantic seaboard from Maine to Florida, hemmed in between

[1] Louisburg was exchanged for Madras in India, which had fallen into the hands of the French. England paid back to the colonies the amount they had spent in the expedition. As a result of this war the power of Spain in world affairs was broken and her fleets annihilated. England became the world's greatest naval power.

[2] This conflict was called in Europe the Seven Years' War, and was waged by France, Spain, Sweden, Russia, Austria, and Poland against Frederick the Great of Prussia, who was aided by England.

[3] Sir William Johnson was of Irish birth and had settled near Schenectady to manage his estates. His dealings with the Indians had so endeared him to them that the Mohawk had adopted him into the tribe with the rank of sachem.

the Appalachian Mountains and the Atlantic Ocean. They had now begun to turn their eyes across the Alleghenies, but the French line of settlements and forts seemed to present an unbroken front, preventing their westward progress.

132. The Ohio Company. George Washington. In 1749 a number of Virginians organized the Ohio Company for the purpose of opening up lands along the Ohio. They obtained from the king a grant of five hundred thousand acres of land, mainly along the Monongahela and Kanawha rivers, and sent surveyors to mark out the land. The French took alarm at this invasion of their territory and immediately erected a fort at Presque Isle (now Erie, Pennsylvania) on Lake Erie. Directly south they built a second fort, called Le Bœuf,[1] and a third, named Venango, on the Allegheny. Governor Dinwiddie of Virginia sent a young man only twenty-one years of age, an adjutant general in the Virginia militia, to order them to cease building these forts on English territory.[2] This young man was George Washington, whose name appears in this enterprise for the first time in the pages of history.[3]

133. The French at Fort Duquesne.[4] The French promptly and firmly declined to yield to Dinwiddie's order. The latter, seeing there was no time to be wasted or the Ohio valley would be lost, sent a force to build a fort at the junction of the Allegheny and Monongahela rivers. This point Washington had marked as of great military value. The French came up as the English were at work, and compelled them to leave. Finishing the fort themselves, they called it Fort Duquesne in

[1] Le Bœuf (lĕ bŭf′).

[2] The demand was made on the ground that James I had given this territory to Virginia in his "sea-to-sea" grant. Dinwiddie declared it was universally known to be the property of the crown of Great Britain.

[3] In 1751 occurred in England the important event of the change from the Julian calendar, which had been arranged by Julius Cæsar, to the Gregorian calendar, recommended by Pope Gregory XIII in 1582. There was an error of eleven days at this time, and September 3 was called September 14. This change was made also in the American colonies.

[4] Duquesne (du kane′).

honor of the governor of Canada. Washington, with seventy-five men, hastened to the assistance of the Virginians, but was informed of their surrender before he had traveled far. He decided to push on, however, and after journeying some days, built a stockade, which he called Fort Necessity. Hearing of the approach of a body of French and Indians, he sallied out and killed and captured many of them; but the main body of the French now appeared, and Washington, besieged in Fort Necessity, was compelled to surrender, July 4, 1754. Virginia now voted a gift of land to every man who would go to the front, and fifty thousand dollars were appropriated for military operations on the Ohio.

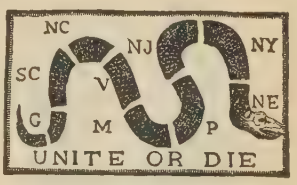


ILLUSTRATION USED IN FRANKLIN'S PAPER

134. The Albany Convention, 1754. The English government now realized that strong steps must be taken or the French would control all the country west of the Appalachian Mountains. It requested, therefore, the governors of the various colonies to meet in Albany in a convention to make a treaty with the Iroquois Indians and to form a union of the colonies to advance their own interests and those of the king. Twenty-five delegates answered the call to this convention, which began June 19, 1754. Benjamin Franklin proposed here a "Plan of Union"[1] for the colonies against the French.

[1] In the *Pennsylvania Gazette* of this time appeared a device representing a snake cut into pieces. Each piece represented a colony, and beneath were the words "Unite or Die." Its author was Benjamin Franklin. Franklin was born in Boston in 1706. He was the youngest of seventeen children. His father was a candle-maker and wished Franklin to follow that trade, but Franklin preferred to be a printer. He went to New York and later to Philadelphia, where he finally settled. He was soon known throughout the colonies through his "Poor Richard's Almanac." In 1753 he became deputy postmaster of all the English colonies in America. He invented the Franklin stove and the lightning rod, and proved the identity of electricity and lightning. He signed the Declaration of Independence, aided materially in bringing about the alliance with France, and sat in the convention that drew up the National Constitution. He died in 1790.

135. The Plan of Union. Under the Plan of Union there was to be a confederation with a president for all the colonies. He would have veto power and would be appointed by the king of England. A council was to be elected by the colonies to make treaties with the Indians, to lay taxes, and to regulate the defenses of the colonies by land and sea.

BENJAMIN FRANKLIN

Although the Plan of Union was adopted by the convention, it was rejected by the colonists. They feared that, as it removed the power of taxation from the colonial assemblies, it yielded too much power to the king. The king vetoed it because it promoted the idea of union among the colonies and granted, he thought, too many rights to the colonists. Nevertheless the convention was of great importance, as it gave the colonies a groundwork for future union. At the same time it made the leading colonists better acquainted with each other and paved the way for the later united action against England.

136. Plan of Campaign. The English king now sent over two regiments of regulars under General Braddock. On his arrival Braddock summoned the colonial governors to Alexandria, Virginia, to discuss plans for carrying on the war. It was proposed to send an expedition against Fort Duquesne; a second force planned to take the forts on Lake Champlain, opening that route to Quebec and Montreal, while a third army was to sail up the Hudson, to pass along the Mohawk valley, and, skirting the shores of Lake Ontario, to attack the forts near the Niagara River. Lastly, a fourth army was to cut off

Acadia from New France and prevent raiding by the Indians on the New England settlements.[1]

137. Braddock's Defeat, July 9, 1755. Braddock commanded in person the expedition against Fort Duquesne. Ignorant though he was of Indian warfare, he scorned advice and, looking with contempt on the skill of the Indians in war, pushed his way through the woods toward Fort Duquesne. When within eight miles of the fort, his troops were attacked by the enemy, who were hidden in the bushes. From every side poured in the bullets of the French and Indians. His forces were cut to pieces, he himself was mortally wounded, and Washington with difficulty saved the retreating troops by his masterly skill.[2]

138. The Expulsion of the Acadians, 1755. The province called Acadia — the territory now included in the peninsula of Nova Scotia — had been under the rule of France for a century, but in 1713 it was transferred to the English, and for many years there were endless disputes about the territory. In 1755 an expedition was directed against the French forces that held military posts there, which were quickly taken by the English. The inhabitants were nearly all French Catholics, who had prosperous farms and happy homes. The English, claiming that the Acadians as Frenchmen were constantly plotting against them and in favor of France, offered them in 1755 for the last time the oath of allegiance to the king of England. They again refused to take it. The English thereupon

[1] The French line of defense extended in a great semicircle. Its left flank was the St. Lawrence, defended by Louisburg; its center was Lake Champlain, defended by Ticonderoga; its right flank was Lake Ontario, protected by Fort Frontenac, and the Ohio River, controlled by Fort Duquesne. The weakness of France was twofold: first, the necessity of sending large bodies of troops from France to the German front against Frederick; second, the lack of coöperation between the French authorities in America.

[2] In this battle the English and the colonists lost fourteen hundred men killed and wounded, while the French and Indians lost only twenty-five. Far greater in its influence than the loss of men was the loss of prestige by the British among the Indians. The defeat opened the entire frontier from Pennsylvania to South Carolina to the raids of the French and Indian war parties.

resolved to expel them from the country. The cruel measure[1] was successfully carried out, no less than six thousand men, women, and children being placed on vessels and dropped along the coast from Massachusetts to Georgia among colonists who, while they did not welcome them, treated them kindly. Many of the exiles finally reached Louisiana. The torch was applied

MAP ILLUSTRATING THE FRENCH AND INDIAN WARS

to the homes of the unfortunate people, and the fair fields of Acadia were for years a waste.

139. Battle of Lake George. Fall of Fort William Henry. The bitter struggle had been in progress two years before the formal declaration of war between England and France. In September, 1755, Dieskau, the French commander, marched with fourteen hundred troops against Fort Edward, near the

[1] All the men, young and old, were ordered to meet at the village church of Grand Pré on the afternoon of Friday, September 5, 1755, to hear the intentions of the king in regard to them. The unsuspecting natives gathered and heard the fearful judgment. All their possessions except money and household goods were forfeited, and they were prisoners of the king. Before they could realize their position the church was surrounded by troops. Longfellow has told the pitiful story of their sufferings in his poem "Evangeline."

head of navigation on the Hudson. The English, marching to meet him, fell into an ambush and suffered terrible losses. They fell back to their camp at Lake George, where, defended by a barricade of trees and wagons, they successfully resisted the assault of the enemy. After a fight of five hours the French retreated. Dieskau was severely wounded and fell a prisoner into the hands of the English.

In the following year (August 14, 1756) Montcalm attacked the forts at Oswego that commanded the entrance to Lake Ontario. They fell easily into his hands and were demolished. The French were now masters of the Great Lakes. In August, 1757, Montcalm turned his attention to Fort William Henry at the head of Lake George. With seventy-six hundred men, including two thousand Indians, he besieged this important point. For days his batteries rained shot and shell on the fort till it surrendered, August 9, 1757. It was destroyed, and the French were now masters of Lake George and Lake Champlain.[1]

140. William Pitt. French Reverses. Affairs became brighter for England when William Pitt, in 1757, became the ruling power there and threw all his energy toward carrying on the war. He planned three expeditions, the first against Louisburg, the second against Fort Duquesne, and the third against Ticonderoga and Crown Point. In July, 1758, Louisburg was attacked by fourteen thousand men and surrendered July 27, 1758, with fifty-six hundred prisoners of war.[2]

In the meantime Montcalm, in his defenses at Ticonderoga, with only four thousand soldiers, was attacked July 8, 1758, by Abercrombie, with sixteen thousand men, the largest army of

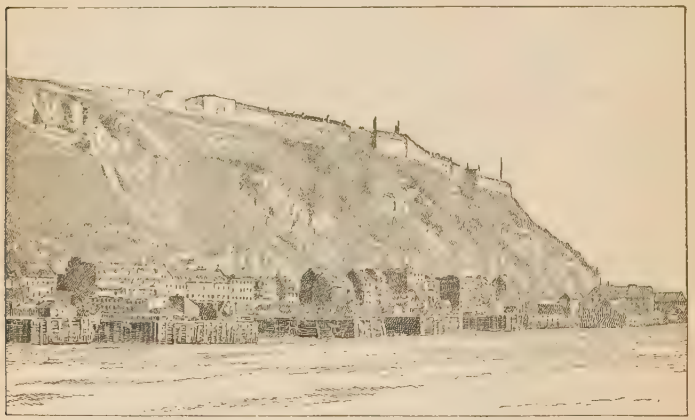
[1] As the English troops were leaving the fort they were attacked by the Indians and sixty or seventy were massacred, despite Montcalm's attempts to restrain his savage allies. About four hundred were kidnaped by the Indians and were later ransomed by Montcalm.

[2] In 1760 Great Britain ordered the total destruction of the fortifications, and nothing remains of Louisburg except the ruins and the huts of a few fishermen. Halifax became the stronghold of the English for this section.

white soldiers that had ever been gathered on the continent. The English were repulsed, losing almost two thousand men.

On November 25, 1758, Fort Duquesne was captured by General Forbes and named Pittsburgh in honor of William Pitt, the English statesman.

A succession of defeats weakened the French. Fort Frontenac on Lake Ontario fell August 27, 1758, and its capture gave the English control of Lake Ontario, one of the two gateways



QUEBEC

to the West. About a year later Niagara was captured (July 25, 1759) by Sir William Johnson, and the route to Lake Erie passed into the hands of the English.

141. The Plains of Abraham, 1759. The English in 1759 continued their general forward movements. One army moved up Lake George to Lake Champlain, and the French were compelled to abandon Ticonderoga (July 26, 1759) and Crown Point.

General Wolfe, who had distinguished himself before Louisburg, led an expedition against Quebec, the strongest fortress in America. Montcalm, with a strong army, defended the citadel, which was built on a rocky bluff, carefully guarded on every side except one, where a steep ravine seemed to defy any

approach. After four months' attempt to draw Montcalm into a fight, Wolfe resorted to stratagem. One dark night, September 12, 1759, he led his forces up the ravine to the Plains of Abraham behind the city.[1] When day broke, the French were amazed to see the glittering ranks of the English, five thousand strong, drawn up in battle array. A fierce battle ensued in which the French were defeated, and both Montcalm[2] and Wolfe were mortally wounded. Quebec passed into the hands of the English, September 17, 1759, and the power of France in America was doomed.[3]

"With the triumph of Wolfe on the Heights of Abraham began the history of the United States," says Greene.[4]

142. The Treaty of Paris, 1763. While the war was in progress between France and England, Spain had made an alliance with France. England thereupon declared war upon her and captured Havana in Cuba and Manila in the Philippine Islands.

[1] While in his boat on his way to the attack Wolfe is said to have repeated this verse from Gray's "Elegy":

"The boast of heraldry, the pomp of power,
And all that beauty, all that wealth e'er gave,
Await alike the inevitable hour.
The paths of glory lead but to the grave."

When he had finished he said, "I would rather have written those lines than take Quebec to-morrow."

[2] Montcalm died on the day after his defeat. He was buried in the chapel of the Ursuline convent. When told that his wound was mortal he said, "I am happy that I shall not live to see the surrender of Quebec."

[3] On the monument to Wolfe and Montcalm in Quebec are Latin words which read in translation:

"Valor gave them a united death, History a united fame, Posterity a united monument."

As a result of this victory, Parkman says: "England blazed with bonfires. In one spot alone all was dark and silent; for here a widowed mother mourned for a loving and devoted son, and the people forbore to profane her grief with the clamor of their rejoicings." — "Montcalm and Wolfe," Vol. II, p. 324

After the fall of Quebec there was continued fighting between the English and French until Montreal surrendered, September 8, 1760.

[4] "History of the English People," Vol. IV, p. 197.

In the treaty of peace made in Paris in 1763, at the end of the French and Indian War, three nations were involved. Under the terms of this treaty,

WOLFE'S MEN CLIMBING TO THE PLAINS OF ABRAHAM

I. France ceded to England the whole of Canada except two small islands.[1] The French retained the right of drying their fish on the coast of Newfoundland. France also ceded to England all her possessions east of the Mississippi River except New Orleans and a near-by strip of territory.[2]

II. France ceded to her ally Spain, to recompense her for losses during the war, all the territory west of the Mississippi River including New Orleans.

III. Spain ceded Florida to England in exchange for Havana and Manila, which had been captured during the war.[3]

143. The Conspiracy of Pontiac, 1763. For some time the Indians of the West had been growing discontented. A conspiracy was formed by an Ottawa chief, Pontiac, a man of great ability and daring, who had brought eighteen Indian nations

[1] These islands were St. Pierre and Miquelon, which were held to serve as a shelter for French fishermen.

[2] England also received from France the West Indian islands of Tobago, Dominica, Grenada, and St. Vincent.

[3] Florida was ceded back to Spain in 1783.

under his rule. His plan was to attack all the English forts on the same day, May 7, 1763. Although the conspiracy finally failed, the Indians captured practically all the forts[1] in the West with the exception of Detroit, Niagara, and Fort Pitt. Along the entire Western frontier the settlers were murdered and scalped, and towns and plantations were destroyed.

144. The Proclamation Line of 1763. When the vast territory of the West came under the British flag as the result of the treaty of peace of 1763, a grave question arose in England as to its future. Some wished to throw the whole territory open to settlement; others preferred to keep it as an Indian reservation by drawing a line beyond which settlers could not go. This would prevent, it was hoped, Indian wars like that of Pontiac. Others preferred to keep Guadalupe in the West Indies, which had been captured from the French. They would hold the sugar fields of Guadalupe and leave the West to the French. This would secure the much needed tropical products, while the West, they said, was good for nothing except to produce furs. By this plan also they believed the French would hem in the English colonists and thereby keep them in need of English protection. After much discussion in Parliament it was decided to draw a line along the ridge of the Alleghenies and to forbid settlement beyond this line. As need arose new settlements would gradually be formed under regulation by the government and with the consent of the Indian tribes. In this plan no attention was paid to the claims of the colonies to Western lands under the "sea-to-sea" charter. In 1763 this so-called Proclamation Line was drawn.

[1] The forts captured by Pontiac were Fort Sandusky, Fort St. Joseph at the head of Lake Michigan, Michilimacinac, Ouiatanon on the Wabash, Miami on the Maumee, Presque Isle on the site of the city of Erie, Venango, and Le Bœuf, while Fort Pitt was besieged. At Michilimacinac the Indians played a ball game, driving the ball nearer and nearer the fort, whose gates were wide open while the soldiers looked at the game. Suddenly the ball was driven inside the wall, and the Indians, rushing in as if to recover it, raised the war whoop, and, drawing tomahawks from under their blankets, butchered the English with horrible cruelties. Pontiac was soon defeated and sued for peace.

The English ministry also decided to maintain a standing army of ten thousand soldiers in America to hold Canada and the new territory which had been ceded by France and Spain. To pay for this standing army the ministry decided to levy a tax on the colonies. This tax became so great a source of discontent that it was one of the causes, as we shall see, leading to the American Revolution.

145. The Quebec Act. In 1774 Parliament established a system of government for Canada. By the new act the Province of Quebec was extended to the Ohio and to the Mississippi rivers and northward to Hudson Bay. When Canada was ceded by France to England, the inhabitants, who were nearly all Catholics, were promised, so far as religious freedom was concerned, "all the rights of the subjects of Great Britain." At this time, however, the Catholics in Great Britain had practically no legal rights. As a result the French inhabitants of Canada found themselves shut out of all franchises, offices, and even from the privilege of practicing in the courts. To remedy this intolerable condition the Quebec Act was passed. A reason for extending the Province of Quebec to the Ohio was the fact that there were large numbers of French settlements there which would be under no law or government, as that territory had been closed to lawful settlement by the Proclamation Line decree. By extending the territory of Quebec the governor of that province could enforce order over the territory. The English colonists objected strongly to the Quebec Act, as it closed the West to them. A more active reason was

NORTH AMERICA AT CLOSE OF FRENCH WARS, 1763

the religious intolerance of the English colonists, who protested against this act of justice to the French Canadian settlers. The Canadians remembered this bitter antagonism, and when later the colonists sought their aid against England, they refused to betray the nation that had treated them so justly.

SUMMARY

King William's War (1689–1697) was largely Indian warfare, and neither side gained or lost valuable territory.

Queen Anne's War (1702–1713). The usual Indian war raged along the outlying districts of New England. Port Royal was captured by the English and named Annapolis. In the treaty of peace, signed at Utrecht in 1713, the French ceded to England Acadia, Newfoundland, and the Hudson Bay territory. This cession marked the first step in the final conquest of New France.

King George's War (1744-1748). Louisburg was captured, but was returned to France in the treaty of peace of 1748, signed at Aix-la-Chapelle.

The French and Indian War (1754–1763) resulted in the overthrow of French power in America. Canada was ceded (1763) to Great Britain.

RESULTS OF THE FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR, OR SEVEN YEARS' WAR

In America:

1. Through it France lost practically all her possessions in the New World.
2. It severed the alliance between Canada and the savage Indians.
3. It taught the colonists to unite for a common purpose.
4. It left only England to be conquered in the war for independence.
5. It created an enormous debt, and with the establishment of a standing army to protect England's newly acquired territory, caused the levying of new taxes, the direct cause of the American Revolution.
6. It removed from the colonies the danger of Indian wars.

In Europe:

1. It was the beginning of the colonial empire of Great Britain.
2. It marked the rise of England as the world's greatest sea power.
3. It began the establishment of British rule in India.

Dates to be remembered:

1754. Albany Convention. Opening of the French and Indian War.
1759. Fall of Quebec.
1763. Treaty of Paris and cession of Canada to England.[1]

Persons to know about:

Montcalm, William Pitt, Wolfe, Pontiac, Braddock, Washington.

Map work:

Draw a map showing the possessions of the Spanish, French, and English after the Treaty of Paris of 1763.

Find on a map Pittsburgh, Schenectady, Louisburg, Detroit, Lake Champlain, Ticonderoga.

REVIEW EXAMINATION

1. Draw an outline map of the territory held by the French and the English in 1754 and on it locate, with names, four principal points of attack and defense in the French and Indian War (1754–1763).

2. Mention an essential particular in which the French colonies in America differed from the English colonies in (*a*) government; (*b*) industries. How was each of these differences an advantage to the French in war? a disadvantage?

3. What territory did the English gain by the French and Indian War? How did the war prepare the colonists for the Revolutionary War?

4. Why would not the Iroquois fight for the French in the French and Indian War? What was the decisive battle in this war?

5. Who was the founder of the French power in America? What European nations held control of North America at the close of the French and Indian War?

6. Just before the French and Indian War, what was done to bring about a union of the colonies? What motto was printed by Franklin to show the need of union? What was the Plan of Union?

7. Explain why it was important for the English in the French and Indian War to capture each of the following French strongholds: Fort Duquesne, Crown Point, Quebec.

[1] "The Seven Years' War left Great Britain the most powerful state on the globe, and heralded the rise of an English nation in the Western Hemisphere. Scarcely any other military struggle has produced so many events of decisive interest to mankind."— HOWARD, "Preliminaries of the Revolution," p. 3

8. Give two results of the French and Indian War. Give an account of Braddock's defeat at Fort Duquesne and Wolfe's victory at Quebec.

9. Give the location of Acadia. Write a brief account of the expulsion of the Acadians.

10. Give an account of the wars between the French and English in America, showing (*a*) general causes; (*b*) special causes of the last war; (*c*) comparative strength of the French and English colonies; (*d*) final result of the struggle.

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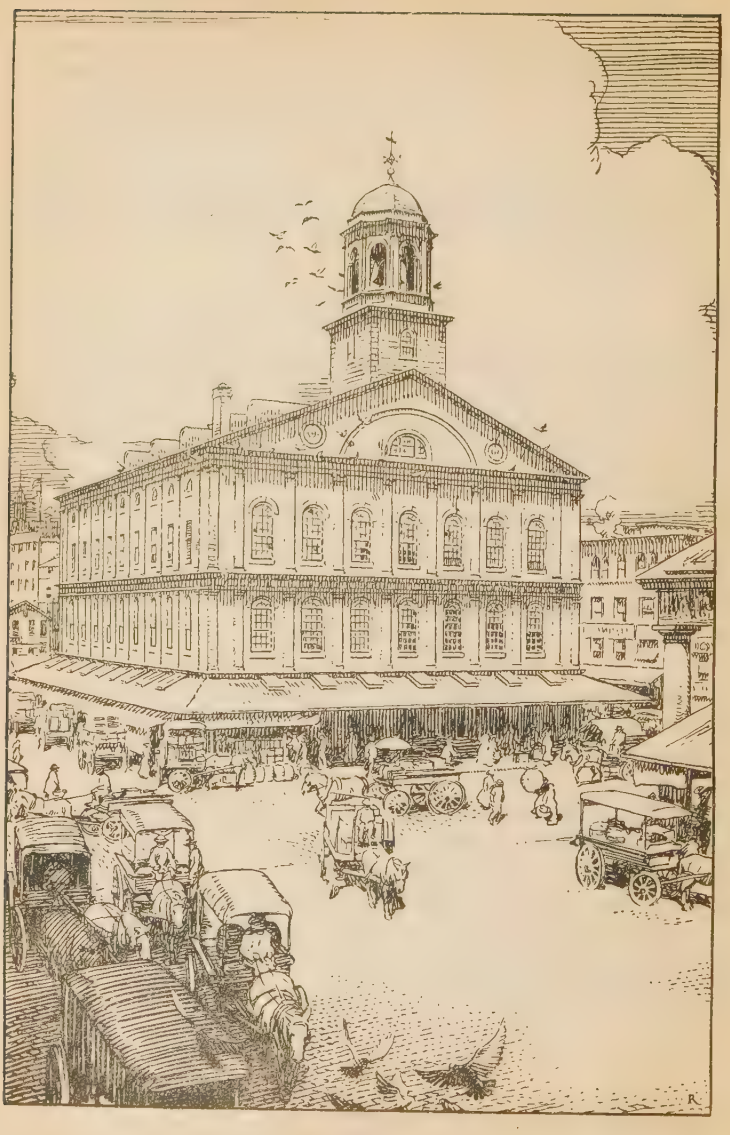


FANEUIL HALL

CHAPTER VIII

"It is not a work for everyone to plant a colony; but when a home is built, it is no hard matter to dwell in it." — CAPTAIN JOHN SMITH

LIFE IN THE COLONIES IN 1763

146. The Colonists and England. The year 1763 marks a turning point in American history. The power of France in the New World was broken forever; England was mistress of the vast territory stretching from the Atlantic Ocean to the Mississippi River. The colonists now numbered about one million six hundred thousand, of whom four hundred thousand were negro slaves. They feared no longer the attacks from the French and Indians and, awake to their own strength, began to demand from England the rights which they asserted belonged to them as subjects of the British crown. These demands led to revolution. Before entering on this great struggle let us glance at the condition of the colonies at the signing of the peace treaty with France in 1763.

147. Civil Government. Three forms of government existed in the colonies.

1. Charter colonies: Massachusetts (until 1684),[1] Connecticut, and Rhode Island.

The charter was a contract between the king and the colony, which specified the exact rights and powers which each was to enjoy. It could not in theory be changed without the consent of both parties.

In Connecticut and Rhode Island the governors were elected; in Massachusetts they were appointed by the king. In all three colonies the Assembly was elected.

[1] In 1684 Massachusetts lost its charter and became a crown colony.

2. Proprietary colonies: Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland.

These colonies were governed by a proprietor, to whom the king had granted the land. This proprietor had power to dispose of the land to settlers, to establish a government, and to appoint a governor for his territory.

3. Royal or crown colonies: New Hampshire, New York, New Jersey, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia.

In these colonies the governor was appointed directly by the crown and was its personal representative. Royal colonies were therefore under the king's direct rule and were protected by no written charter. Each colony had a legislative body elected by the people.[1] In all the colonies, however, the right to vote was allowed only to those who were members of a Protestant church[2] and either had a fixed yearly income or owned land. This deprived of the suffrage, or right to vote, not only the Catholics but the great mass of the people, as the holders of land or the possessors of a fixed income were few. The general direction of colonial affairs in England was in the hands of the Board of Trade and Plantations.

148. Three Colonial Groups. Travel. So marked is the diversity of the physical features of the colonies, as well as their interests, manners, customs, and occupations, that they may be divided into three groups, — the New England, the Middle, and the Southern. The distinction between the colonies was the more marked because there were no regular or adequate routes of travel from one colony to another. In traveling, the colonists depended upon stages, horseback, boats, or canoes. Wretched roads led from town to town and from one colony to another. Many of the roads were merely Indian trails, which were of use only on foot or horseback. It required

[1] If the acts of the colonial legislatures were vetoed by the governors, except in Pennsylvania, they failed to become laws. It was necessary that all acts passed by colonial legislatures except those of Connecticut, Rhode Island, and Maryland should be signed by the king of England to become laws.

[2] In 1702 the Test Act of Queen Anne prevented anyone who was not a Protestant from holding any public office in the colonies.

four days to go by stage from New York to Boston. Three days were necessary from New York to Philadelphia until a faster coach called the "flying machine" made the trip in two days, a journey which to-day requires only two hours. Sloops were also in general use to travel from New York to Philadelphia, this trip by water requiring generally four days.

To the PUBLIC.

THE FLYING MACHINE, kept by John Mercereau, at the New-Blazing-Star-Ferry, near New-York, ſets off from Powles-Hook every Monday, Wedneſday, and Friday Mornings, for Philadelphia,.

A TRANSPORTATION NOTICE

149. The New England Colonies. These comprise Massachusetts,[1] New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Connecticut, with a population of about six hundred thousand. There were slaves, but the number was never large, as they were not profitable. Farming was the chief industry; but the rugged nature of the land induced many colonists to become traders and mechanics. The forests were valuable in timber, and shipbuilding was consequently one of the greatest industries. The New England colonies carried on a profitable shipping trade with the West Indies,[2] where they obtained sugar, molasses,

[1] Maine was at this time a part of Massachusetts, and New Hampshire claimed a large part of Vermont.

[2] Sixteen hundred vessels were employed in the trade of Boston.

cotton, logwood, and slaves, and in return exported rum, salt fish, oysters, and flour. Slavery never obtained a foothold in New England, because it was not profitable.

150. Government. Social Life. The political unit in New England was the town, a subdivision of the colony, not too large to prevent the people living in it from attending the same church. The town was the reproduction of the English parish, with some variations. The houses of the town were generally grouped around the village green, or common, with the church and school. In these towns the freemen voted in a "town meeting" on all questions of local government, elected executive officers, who were called selectmen, and chose also the representatives of the town to the colonial legislature. Boston was the leading city of New England.

A SETTLER'S LOG CABIN

The life of the people was guided by rather rigid rules. Absence from church on the Sabbath was visited with prompt punishment, and in general all social pleasures were frowned on. Certain grades of society were recognized, with distinctions of dress for each grade.[1] Seats in church were allotted according to wealth and education.[2] Throughout all the colonies the aristocratic spirit prevailed.

151. Colonial Homes. Education. The colonial houses were generally built of hewed logs or clapboards. The windows were frequently covered with oiled paper instead of glass. The furniture was rude, formed from the rough timber of the

[1] The order of precedence was as follows: gentlemen, yeomen, merchants, mechanics, indentured servants, and negro slaves.

[2] For more than a hundred years after its establishment the students in Harvard College were arranged according to their rank, instead of alphabetically.

forest. Each house had a large open fireplace. The cooking was done on griddles or in pots swung into the fire on a crane. Meat was roasted by turning it over the fire on an iron rod, or spit, run through it. The food for the most part was salt pork, game, fish, hominy, mush made from Indian corn, succotash, rye bread, apples, and a porridge made of

A COLONIAL KITCHEN

beans or peas. The dress of the New England colonists was severely simple. The blockhouse was an important feature of practically every New England settlement. It was built of logs and generally had an overhanging second story. From port-holes the colonists could fire on attacking Indians. For the home the colonial type of architecture was developed and is exquisitely beautiful in its simple lines. It may still be seen in many parts of New England.

Education was fostered by the New England colonists from the foundation of the colony. Grammar schools existed

in some of the towns, and colleges were established. The Massachusetts colony gave four hundred pounds to found Harvard College in 1636. In 1701 Yale College was founded. In 1764 Rhode Island College was established, and later named Brown University. Dartmouth was chartered in 1769.

152. Amusements. The amusements of the New England colonists consisted largely in a gathering together of the people. These gatherings were called "bees." Here the people raised

SCENE IN A NEW ENGLAND TOWN

new houses or barns, spun wool, made quilts, husked corn, prepared apples, and in many other ways joined together to aid one another. There were also shooting matches where the members showed their skill. On training days the settlers were given a little instruction in military tactics to prepare them for Indian attacks. The theater was not allowed. The Puritan would not celebrate Christmas. Instead, on Thanksgiving Day the family gathered from far and near. A great feast of turkeys, chickens, plum puddings, pumpkin pies, mince pies, cakes, and nuts was served.

153. Early Printing in the Colonies. In the early days the colonists received their books and papers from England. The first book printed in English America was the Bay Psalm Book in 1640. This was almost exactly a century after the printing press had been introduced into Mexico by Bishop Zumárraga. The Bay Psalm Book was a metrical version of the psalms, compiled by ministers of the Massachusetts colony. In 1704 the *Boston News-Letter*, the first permanent newspaper printed in the colonies, appeared. It was published weekly. Its page was only six inches long and four inches wide. By 1719 Boston had five printing establishments and the other colonies soon had presses.

A PILLORY

From a drawing by Homer Colby based on contemporary sources

154. Laws and Punishments. The law was the common law of England amended by legislation to suit the new conditions. In making such amendments the Levitical law of the Old Testament was sometimes followed. In certain criminal cases death was the penalty. For lesser offenses branding on the cheek or forehead was resorted to, or a letter to indicate the crime was fastened on the dress or suit of the culprit. At times the ears of the prisoners were cut off. Other punishments were lashing on the bare back, standing in the pillory, or stocks, or wearing an iron collar. Criminals were at times sold as slaves to the planters in the West Indies.

On the death of parents, property was divided by law among all the children. The eldest son frequently received a double portion.

155. Industrial Life. The cod, whale, bluefish, and mackerel fisheries were a source of great wealth, as the waters abounded in fish, and fishing towns grew up here and there along the coast. Despite the valuable water power throughout the colonies, only a small amount of manufacturing was carried on. Certain kinds of industry were forbidden by England, as iron manufacturing or the making of beaver hats. On a small scale, however, were carried on tanning, milling, linen weaving, paper manufacturing, and the distillation of rum from the molasses of the West Indies. The English government attempted by law to restrict this trade to the English West Indies, but it was unable to do so, and smuggling was practiced to an enormous extent.

DUTCH WINDMILL

156. The Middle Colonies; Population and Industries. The middle colonies comprised New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, and Maryland. The population of these colonies amounted to about four hundred thousand and was composed of Dutch, Germans, Irish, English, French, and Swedes.

The chief industries in the middle colonies were agriculture and commerce. Wheat, which was raised in large quantities, was ground in the windmills that dotted the hillsides everywhere. A large fur trade was carried on with the Indians. New York maintained a thriving commerce with foreign ports, — especially with England, Spain, Portugal, and the West Indies, — foreshadowing the great commerce of that port at this day.

There were few cities. Philadelphia, the largest city in all the colonies, had only twenty thousand inhabitants. New York City had a population of twelve thousand.

The manor houses along the Hudson River were generally of stone. The houses in New York City built by the Dutch

were of brick with the crowstep gable roof. The houses had porches, where the thrifty Dutchmen sat at night and smoked their large-bowled pipes.

157. Government. Social Life. In the middle colonies, as a rule, political affairs were directed by a system of town and county government, the voters in each town electing some of the county officers.

In their social life the Dutch in New York maintained, through the patroon system, an aristocracy. On their vast

HOUSE IN PHILADELPHIA BUILT BY PENN

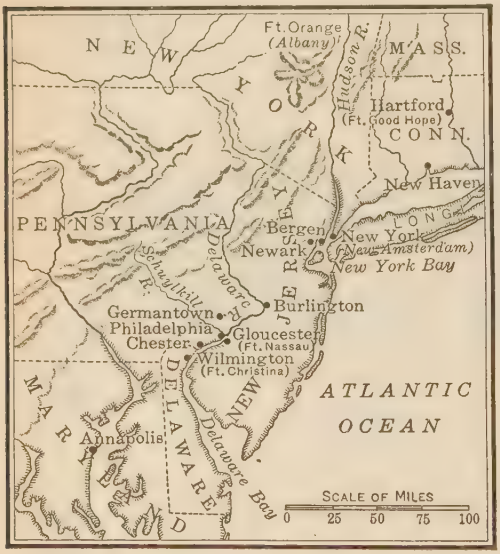
estates the patroons of the Hudson River followed the lavish entertainment and expenditures of the nobility of Europe.

Pennsylvania and New Jersey were entirely free from aristocratic ideas, the Quakers spending their simple frugal life in tilling their farms and spreading plenty around them. Many brick houses were to be seen in the middle colonies. The bricks were brought as ballast in the vessels from England, as there was not freight enough in England to fill the vessels sailing to America.

158. Amusements. The amusements of the middle colonies consisted in sleighing and skating, balls, picnics, singing schools, horse racing, cricket, and bowling. The latter sport

was especially favored by the Dutch. Bowling Green was named from the fact that here the Dutch played at bowls nightly. They celebrated Christmas, New Year's Day, Easter, and May Day.

159. Newspapers and Books. In 1685 William Bradford established the first printing press in the Pennsylvania colony. It was the first press in the colonies outside of Massachusetts.



THE MIDDLE COLONIES

The first paper mill in the colonies of English America was established by William Rittenhouse in 1690 on the Wissahickon, a small river that flows through Philadelphia.

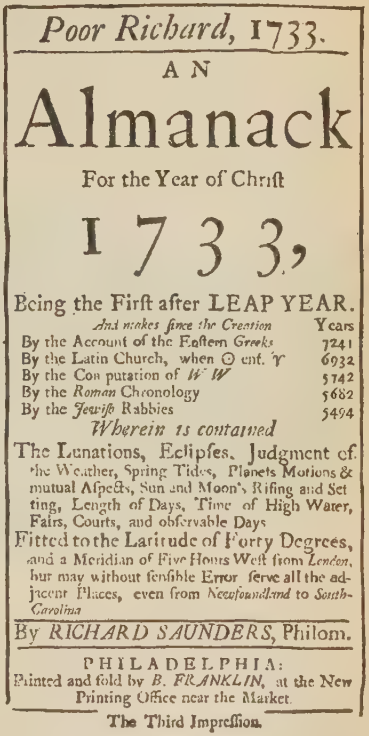
In 1729 Franklin published the *Pennsylvania Gazette* and in 1732 began the publication of the famous "Poor Richard's Almanac," which was so popular in all the colonies from its quaint sayings and homely truths. The *New York Weekly Journal* was first published in 1733 by John Peter Zenger. Zenger's arrest and acquittal for libel established the freedom of the press in English America. The Zenger case has been called "the morning star of that liberty which subsequently revolutionized America."

160. Education. Under Dutch rule there were some elementary schools, but the English, when they captured the colony, made little provision for elementary education. For higher education were established Princeton in 1746, King's

College (the present Columbia University) in 1754, the University of Pennsylvania, founded by Benjamin Franklin in 1755, Queen's College (later Rutgers) in 1766, and Georgetown College in 1789.

161. Punishments. Piracy was common in the waters around New York. It was punished by hanging. Other forms of punishment were in general similar to those of New England. The pillory was to be seen here in frequent use as well as the whipping post.

162. The Southern Colonies. Industries. The southern colonies comprised Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia. In these colonies agriculture was the universal occupation. In Virginia immense plantations stretched along the great rivers. Tobacco was raised everywhere in the colony and became the basis of all mercantile life. In South Carolina and Georgia rice and indigo were the leading productions. North Carolina furnished the products of the pine forests.


Poor Richard, 1733.

AN

Almanack

For the Year of Chriſt

1733,

Being the Firſt after LEAP YEAR.

And makes ſince the Creation Years

By the Account of the Eaſtern *Greeks* 7241
By the Latin Church, when ☉ ent. ♈ 6932
By the Computation of *W. W.* 5742
By the *Roman* Chronology 5682
By the *Jewiſh* Rabbies 5494

Wherein is contained

The Lunations, Eclipſes, Judgment of the Weather, Spring Tides, Planets Motions & mutual Aſpects, Sun and Moon's Riſing and Setting, Length of Days, Time of High Water, Fairs, Courts, and obſervable Days

Fitted to the Latitude of Forty Degrees, and a Meridian of Five Hours Weſt from *London*, but may without ſenſible Error ſerve all the adjacent Places, even from *Newfoundland* to *South-Carolina*

By *RICHARD SAUNDERS*, Philom.

PHILADELPHIA:
Printed and ſold by *B. FRANKLIN*, at the New Printing Office near the Market.

The Third Impreſſion.

TITLEPAGE FROM FRANKLIN'S "POOR RICHARD'S ALMANAC"

Slavery was the basis of the industrial life of these colonies, and slave labor was used almost exclusively. The slaves were secured from Africa and from the West Indies through the cruel slave trade. Indentured servants were to be found in large numbers throughout these colonies.

163. Government. Social Life. Local political affairs in the southern colonies were regulated by county officers, who were appointed by the governor of each colony. The ever-increasing size of the plantations removed the planters farther and farther from one another, and in consequence there were few towns. The plantation was a village in itself. Vessels sailed up the rivers and touched at its wharf; it had its own blacksmiths, carpenters, coopers, tailors, and shoemakers. It had its own mills for grinding corn and warehouses for tobacco. The stately home of the planter was generally built of wood or brick. With its score of servants it was the abode of wealth and hospitality. Christmas was celebrated with great festivities. Here and there were grouped the cabins of slaves. As a rule the planters were well educated. Their study of history and politics gave them an insight into the direction of political affairs which made them leaders in the American Revolution.

NEGROES ROLLING TOBACCO

The laws regarding the descent of property varied greatly in these colonies. In Virginia, on the death of the owner, the estate passed to the eldest son, as was the law in England. This prevented the division of estates and aided in building up a landed aristocracy. There were, in consequence, so few towns that the Virginia legislature at one time ordered towns to be built, but the law had little effect.

In all the southern colonies the Church of England — that is, the official state Protestant church of Great Britain — was established by law, and fines and imprisonment were sometimes imposed for refusal to support this church.

164. Education. The English colonial governors were indifferent to the establishment of schools or the spread of education in the South. So extensive were the plantations that schools could be established only with great difficulty, and the children of the poor in consequence received very little education.

DOUGHOREGAN MANOR

Home of Charles Carroll of Carrollton

Printing was forbidden by law in Virginia in the seventeenth century. Governor Berkeley said, in 1670, "I thank God there are no free schools nor printing [presses] in Virginia and I hope we shall not have [them] these hundred years." Private teachers were employed by the planters to instruct their children. The only college in the South, William and Mary, was established in 1693. The sons of the planters were generally sent abroad to be educated. For the poorer classes there were no schools.

165. General View. The life of colonial days would seem a great hardship to us. The houses had no system of steam, hot-water, or furnace heating. In the kitchen was a large fireplace, wide enough to hold logs five feet long. Here the

cooking was done. Only from the fireplace could the kitchen and living room be heated. There was no heat in the sleeping rooms. Churches were generally without heat, as was the case with many of the schools. It was not until 1742 that Franklin invented his open-front stove. Coal was not in use at this time; in fact, the first hard, or anthracite, coal brought to Philadelphia arrived in 1803, and it was many years before its use became general. As matches had not been invented, fire was obtained by striking a flint and catching the spark in tinder. At times a boy was sent to borrow a few live wood coals from a neighbor.

COLONIAL COSTUMES OF THE SOUTH

There was no system of bringing water into a house by pipes from a general reservoir. Each house had its own well in the yard and the water was drawn up in the "old oaken bucket." Gas, kerosene, or electricity had never been used. A tallow candle or whale-oil lamp furnished the unsteady light. Children frequently read by the light of the fireplace.

The clothing, except for those who imported it from Europe, was homespun and deerskin. Every house had a spinning wheel and it was constantly in use. Boots were made of cowhide. The wealthy colonists, however, were gorgeous in suits of silk and velvet, decorated with lace and gold. The wealthy social leader of those days carried a gold-headed cane and an elaborately carved snuffbox. He wore shoes with large silver

buckles, knee breeches, and a tall beaver hat. Very many of the fruits and vegetables we now use daily were unknown in the early days. Travel was slow, dangerous, and uncomfortable as the coaches were heavy, the streams often without bridges, and the roads poor. Frequently the passengers were compelled to get out and help to draw the coach from the mud into which it had sunk. In winter travel was a serious matter as the coach generally started at three in the morning and had of course no heat in it. Surgery was pain because anesthetics had not been discovered. There were no telephones or telegraph to carry the news with the speed of lightning. The steam engine had not been invented, neither had the trolley nor the automobile. Most people traveled on horseback, or used boats if it was possible to go by water. In New England a common sight was the blockhouse of the village, where the colonists could seek shelter in case of Indian attack. At times the whole village was surrounded by an enclosure called a stockade. Battling with the Indians and, in a large part of the colonies, with a rigorous climate, the colonists built up hardy constitutions which stood them in good stead in the arduous labors of their daily life.

READINGS

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REVIEW EXAMINATION

1. Write on the following: The manners and customs of the Dutch colonists as contrasted with the manners and customs of the southern colonists.

THE THIRTEEN COLONIES

2. Mention five articles commonly found in the homes of colonial days that are not found in the homes of to-day.

3. Draw an outline map of the United States and on it indicate where the following made explorations: La Salle, De Soto, Verrazano, Marquette, Hudson.

4. What reasons are there for calling Benjamin Franklin a great American?

5. Compare the home life in a New England town during colonial times with the home life on a southern plantation during the same period.

6. Tell why manufacturing and commerce were not carried on more extensively in the colonies.

7. Trace the progress made in lighting houses since colonial days.

8. If you had been one of the early settlers in colonial times, in which of the colonies should you have preferred to settle? Give reasons for your answer.

9. Of what material were the houses of the early settlers generally built? Describe the methods of cooking in colonial homes. Mention two articles of food in general use among the colonists.

10. What do you understand by blockhouse, stockade, spinning wheel, colonial fireplace?

CHAPTER IX

"The great event in the history of the continent . . . that prodigy of modern times, at once the wonder and the blessing of the world, is the American Revolution." — WEBSTER, "Bunker Hill Address"

THE PERIOD OF THE REVOLUTION

166. Reasons for Colonial Taxation. The expenses of the wars between the French and English in America and Europe were so great that the national debt of England had been doubled.[1] The British statesmen, therefore, decided to compel the American colonists to pay part of the cost of administering the colonies. They gave as a reason that the French and Indian War had been waged to drive the French out of the valley of the Ohio River for the benefit of the colonists and therefore the colonists should bear part of the cost of defense. England decided at this time also to maintain a small standing army of about ten thousand men in America to protect Canada and ward off organized Indian attacks such as that of the great chief Pontiac. It was especially to meet the expense of this new standing army that the new taxes were proposed in Parliament for the American colonies.

[1] The debt increased from about seventy million pounds to nearly one hundred and forty millions. King George III came to the throne of England in 1760. He found the Whig ministers and Parliament in control of the affairs of the nation. Stubborn and self-willed to a marked degree, he wished to rule as he pleased, and to this end gathered around him men of the Tory party who would follow his bidding. The troubles in America aroused his deepest anger, and he was resolved to break the will of the colonists and bring them under his absolute control. By bribery and corruption he was able to control Parliament. He was at times insane, and a regency ruled in his place. In the last years of his life his mind was entirely clouded by insanity. It is said of him that "he inflicted more profound and enduring injuries upon his country than any modern English king."

167. The Navigation Acts. From the very beginning England had looked on the colonies, especially as they increased in wealth, as a good field for the raising of revenues for the British crown. She also looked to them as a means of enriching her own home merchants and manufacturers by securing from the colonies cheap raw materials for manufactures and by selling to the colonies at a high price her manufactured articles. In brief, England believed at that time, as did all other European nations, that colonies existed merely for the good of the mother country.[1] With this view, and in pursuance of a policy of protection and monopoly of English commerce and industry, the Navigation Acts were enacted, the first in 1660 and others in 1663 and in 1672. The object of the Navigation Acts was to protect English shipping against foreign competitors (especially the Dutch, who were now sending their ships to every port), to give English merchants a monopoly of the commerce with the American colonies, and to give to the manufacturers of England complete control of the trade of the American colonial market.

The first of these acts provided that colonial trade could be carried on only in ships owned in England or in the colonies, that all goods must be brought directly to the British Isles from the place where they were produced, that the coasting trade should be closed to all foreign vessels. Later it was provided that certain specified or enumerated articles — tobacco, sugar, cotton, indigo, ginger, dyestuffs — could be carried only to English ports, even English or colonial vessels being forbidden to bring these articles elsewhere. Articles other than these could be sent anywhere, provided they went in English or colonial vessels.

[1] During the nineteenth century the view, with slight modifications, that colonies were expected to be a source of profit for the mother country again became common except for Great Britain, whose colonies have either free trade or a very low tariff. To foster the idea that "trade follows the flag," colonies under the rule of France, Germany, Holland, and the United States have been subjected to heavy import duties against foreign competition.

The act of 1663 required all European goods to be first landed in an English port, and finally that of 1672 forbade the colonies to trade directly with one another unless they paid duties. Rice, molasses, copper, furs, and naval stores were added to the list of goods that must be sent only to England.[1]

The colonists were forbidden (1699) to manufacture the wool[2] raised in America. It was necessary to export it to England, where it was woven into cloth and returned to the colony. It was forbidden to manufacture iron, except in its crude forms, in the colonies, and grain exported to England was heavily taxed to aid the British farmer. Although the Navigation Laws had been enacted a century before this time, they had seldom been enforced. In 1761 the British decided to strictly enforce them and thereby obtain greater revenue.

168. Writs of Assistance. To enforce the acts, British customs officials asked the Superior Court of Massachusetts for permission to use writs of assistance.[3]

The application for these writs aroused the most intense excitement. James Otis was the advocate general, and it was his duty as an officer of the crown to plead in favor of them. Rather than do so he resigned, and for five years opposed the granting of them. "Every one with this writ may be a tyrant,"

[1] Of all the acts in restraint of colonial trade and activity one of the most objectionable to the colonists was the Molasses and Sugar Act of 1733. This act was passed solely to aid the British planters in the West Indian sugar islands and placed so heavy an import duty on molasses and sugar that the trade between the colonies and the French, Spanish, and Dutch West Indies would have been destroyed if it had been enforced. It was against the Molasses Act that the first outspoken resistance to Great Britain, a forerunner of the Revolution, developed.

[2] It was forbidden to export any machinery or patterns of machinery from England. It was intended that this law would aid in preventing the growth of manufactures in America.

[3] A writ of assistance was a general search warrant to enter any house or to board any ship and search for smuggled goods. Its great dangers lay in the fact that the officer could make his search at any time, entering by force, if necessary, without specifying previously what goods he was searching for.

he thundered.[1] In spite of the eloquence of Otis the writs were granted. The colonists knew no way of resisting them, as they were perfectly legal; but the spirit of revolution was now beginning to show itself, and it broke out in full vigor when the ministry of England decided to lay a direct tax on the colonies and secure revenue to pay one third of the cost of maintaining the new standing army in America.

REVENUE STAMP USED IN THE COLONIES

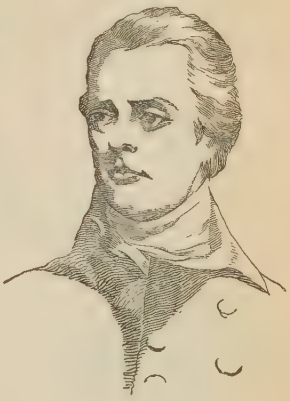
169. The Stamp Act, 1765. This direct tax was called the Stamp Act. It provided that legal paper, licenses, written contracts, advertisements, and newspapers must bear stamps. The cost of these stamps ranged from one cent to fifty dollars[2] according to the value of the paper to which they were attached. One of the provisions of the act was that all offenses against it might be tried in any part of the kingdom instead of at the scene of the offense, and in an admiralty court without a jury. This was in effect a direct blow at the right of trial by jury.

The Stamp Act was passed in the British Parliament without any noteworthy opposition; but when the intense feeling of the colonies was known, their part was taken by several

[1] "Then and there was the first scene of the first act of opposition to the arbitrary claims of Great Britain. Then and there the child Independence was born. In fifteen years, namely in 1776, he grew to manhood and declared himself free." — JOHN ADAMS, "Works," Vol. X, p. 247

[2] It was estimated that the Stamp Act would provide about five hundred thousand dollars a year in revenue. As a rule the taxes in America were less than those levied in England at this period. Franklin and other colonial agents were in England at this time and did not realize the storm the Stamp Act would arouse in the colonies. The English ministry was willing to change the plan of a stamp tax if any other plan of raising revenue would be more agreeable to the colonies. The plan was laid over for a year, but no other plan was proposed by the colonial agents, and the Stamp Act was thereupon passed.

prominent statesmen, including Pitt, Barré, and Edmund Burke. The opposition to the act in England was led by the Whigs and the merchants. Those who sustained the act were the Tories, the friends of the king, who declared that "obedience first and conciliation afterwards" must be the policy of Parliament.



WILLIAM PITT

170. Opposition to the Stamp Act. The passage of the Stamp Act aroused the utmost indignation in America.[1] It was something almost undreamed of in American history. As each colony elected its own assembly or legislature, this assembly, according to the colonial idea, was the only power that could levy taxes on the people. Added to this was the fact that the colonies were already paying a heavy share of taxation to Great Britain. Virginia was the first colony to raise its voice in protest. A young lawyer, Patrick Henry,[2] presented the following resolutions:

Resolved, That the taxation of the people by themselves or by persons chosen by themselves to represent them, who can only know what taxes the people are able to bear, . . . is the distinguishing characteristic of British freedom.

[1] In his speech Pitt said: "The gentleman tells us that America is obstinate, America is almost in open rebellion. I rejoice that America has resisted." Pitt denied the right of Parliament to pass the law. Burke acknowledged the right, but declared it was not expedient to do so. William Pitt, who became prime minister in 1783, was the second son of William Pitt, Earl of Chatham (see sect. 139).

[2] In Wirt's "Life of Patrick Henry" we read: "It was in the midst of this magnificent debate that he exclaimed in a voice of thunder, 'Cæsar had his Brutus; Charles the First, his Cromwell; and George the Third ["'Treason!' cried the Speaker. 'Treason!' 'Treason!' echoed from every part of the house] — may profit by their example. If this be treason, make the most of it.'"

Resolved, therefore, That the general assembly of this colony has the only and sole exclusive right and power to levy taxes upon the inhabitants of this colony.

In Boston Samuel Adams, who has been sometimes called the Father of the Revolution, attacked the measure at a meeting in the famous old Fanueil Hall, the Cradle of Liberty.

PATRICK HENRY

171. The Stamp Act Congress, 1765. At the suggestion of the General Court of Massachusetts a letter was sent (June 8, 1765) to all the colonies calling for a congress. In answer to this letter delegates from nine of the colonies met in New York, October 7, 1765, and wrote a declaration of rights and grievances, which was sent to the king and to both of the houses of Parliament in England.[1] The declaration said, among other things, that as the colonists had no representation in Parliament, only their own representative colonial assemblies could impose taxation and that the right of trial by jury could not lawfully be denied.[2] The struggle had now begun, and the war cry was, "Taxation without representation is tyranny."

[1] The colonists might have had a higher opinion of Parliament did they not know that, owing to the unjust system of the franchise through property requirements and "pocket boroughs," the majority of the House of Commons was elected by only fifteen thousand voters; in fact, one hundred and fifty-four persons selected three hundred and seven members. Seats in Parliament were openly bought and sold like merchandise.

[2] It is important to remember that the colonists did not ask to be represented in Parliament, but merely demanded that any money needed by England from them should be voted by their own colonial assemblies.

On the first of November, the day on which the act was to go into effect, the colonists showed their violent opposition by forming a club called the Sons of Liberty. The members of this society pledged themselves to wear no goods made in England. They went about the streets mobbing and burning in effigy the officers and destroying the stamp offices to the cry of "Liberty, property, and no stamps!"

The colonists agreed not to buy, sell, or use the articles that had been stamped and to cease using English goods. To the merchants of London the loss of their colonial trade meant dire disaster, as one third of the foreign trade of England was with the American colonies. They gladly joined with the colonists for the repeal of the law. So great was their influence that the law was repealed March 18, 1766, "an event," says Burke, "that caused more universal joy throughout the British Dominion than perhaps any other that can be remembered."

172. The Townshend Acts, 1767. Although the Stamp Act was repealed, Parliament passed the Declaratory Act,[1] asserting its *right* in all cases to tax the American colonies. The next year, 1767, as if to enforce this right, Parliament passed the Townshend Acts,[2] three in number: the first prohibited the New York legislature from passing any more laws until it had made provision for furnishing barracks and supplies to the royal troops in the city; the second enforced more strictly the laws relating to trade by establishing a Board of Commissioners of the Customs; the third placed taxes or import

[1] The Act declares that Parliament "had, hath, and of right ought to have full power and authority to make laws and statutes of sufficient force and validity to bind the colonies and people of America, subjects of the crown of Great Britain in all cases whatsoever." It also declared that all resolutions, votes, orders, and proceedings denying this right of Parliament are null and void.

[2] These acts received their name from Charles Townshend, Chancellor of the Exchequer. William Pitt was now Earl of Chatham, but he had to retire as prime minister because of illness. Townshend died in 1767, before all the acts that bear his name became laws, and his place was taken by Lord North, a favorite of the king.

duties on glass, paper, tea, lead, and painters' colors.[1] This was taxation without representation again, and once more the colonists rebelled. Merchants refused to import English goods. British dealers found their orders canceled and their vessels returning with the goods sent to America. The legislature of Massachusetts sent (February 11, 1768) a circular letter to the other colonies, inviting them to a conference to oppose the new taxes. At the command of the king, Governor Bernard ordered the legislature of Massachusetts to recall the letter. Upon its refusal to do so the legislature was dissolved. The other colonial legislatures were ordered by their governors to ignore the letter, and upon their refusal to do so they were also dissolved.

173. The Boston Massacre, 1770. In October, 1768, two regiments of English troops arrived in Boston to enforce the new tax laws. The people resented the presence of the troops. On the evening of March 5, 1770, a quarrel arose, a large throng gathered, and the soldiers fired on the people. They killed four and wounded seven[2] of the citizens, two of whom died from their wounds.[3] The following day there was an immense gathering of the people in the Old South Meeting House,[4]

[1] From the money thus raised governor, judges, and crown attorneys were to be paid instead of by the colonial assemblies, as had been the custom. This would render these officials independent of the colonial legislatures; an army was to be supported, and, in addition, pensions were to be paid if any money was left. The people saw in this an attempt on the part of the British king to compel the colonists to pay the salaries of men who might be hostile to them and might work solely for the benefit of the king. Another cause of discontent was the belief that the English government intended to establish a Bishop of the Church of England in America and to compel all the colonists to pay tithes for the support of that church.

[2] Among those killed was Crispus Attucks, a mulatto. A monument to him and his companions who fell stands on Boston Common.

[3] The soldiers were tried for murder and were defended by John Adams and Josiah Quincy. All were acquitted except two, who received slight punishment.

[4] They had first gathered in Faneuil Hall. This famous building was built in 1740 by Peter Faneuil, a merchant, as a market house for the town. It contains a spacious hall and has always been called the Cradle of Liberty because of the numerous meetings held there to protest against the acts of Great Britain.

and Samuel Adams demanded the removal of the troops. That evening they were transferred to an island in the harbor. The Boston Massacre, as it was called, aroused the whole country. The Revolution was rapidly approaching.

THE BOSTON MASSACRE
From Paul Revere's engraving

174. The North Carolina Regulators, 1771. The Westward Movement. In no section was the iron hand of British officials more heavily felt than in the upper counties of North Carolina. Here the Irish and Scotch farmers, who comprised the greater part of the population, arose in revolt against Tryon, the royal governor. Under the name of "Regulators" they fought at Alamance a bloody battle with the colonial militia. The Regulators were badly defeated.

In disgust at the conditions that had existed in the southern colonies, and which could not be remedied under royal rule, large numbers of settlers had crossed the Allegheny Mountains. They were leaders in the great Westward movement that later settled the Ohio and Mississippi valleys.[1]

175. Burning of the *Gaspee*, 1772. A daring event occurred in 1772 which showed still further the independent spirit of the colonists. To enforce the revenue laws an eight-gun schooner, the *Gaspee*, was stationed in Narragansett Bay. The commander overhauled vessels and acted in so tyrannical a manner that the colonists resolved to take a decisive step. In June, 1772, the *Gaspee*, while chasing an American ship, ran aground. On the following night she was surrounded by a party of disguised men in eight boats and burned to the water's edge. Although a large reward was offered for the arrest of the guilty persons, they were never discovered.

176. Repeal of the Townshend Acts. Boston Tea Party. On the day of the Boston Massacre a bill was introduced into the British Parliament to repeal the Townshend Acts, except the tax of six cents a pound on tea. This was retained that the right of Parliament to impose taxes could be maintained. Although it was a small tax,[2] the principle involved was the point at issue. If Parliament could legally tax tea, it could also levy any taxes it saw fit.[3]

[1] These early settlers had spread rapidly into the territory along the Ohio. As a result, at the Treaty of Paris of 1763 the United States received all the territory as far as the Mississippi River, instead of to the Alleghenies as might have been the case had not these settlements been made.

[2] This tax was so small that the royal treasury would not have received more than fifteen hundred dollars a year.

[3] "It is doing nothing to repeal a few scraps of paper or pieces of parchment called 'Acts of Parliament,'" said William Pitt, "but our business is to repeal the ill-will and the animosity unfortunately now subsisting between Great Britain and North America." Pitt, however, was absolutely opposed to anything that tended toward *independence* for the colonies. In fact, his last speech in the House of Lords (April 7, 1778) was an earnest protest against American independence, which, he said, "would bring about the dismemberment of this ancient and most noble monarchy."

The colonists therefore refused to buy or use the tea, even though under the new law it was cheaper in America than in England. Ships full of tea were sent to Charleston, Philadelphia, Boston, New York, and other ports. The people of Philadelphia and New York would not allow the vessels to land and sent them back. In Annapolis the *Peggy Stewart*, loaded with tea, was burned. In Boston the British officers would not allow the vessels to be sent back. On the night of December 16, 1773, a party of men, disguised as Indians, boarded the ships, ripped open three hundred and forty-two chests, worth about ninety thousand dollars, and spilled the tea into the harbor. This was a direct affront to the king, and Parliament at once resolved to punish Massachusetts. This was done by passing the so-called Five Intolerable Acts.

177. The Five Intolerable Acts, 1774. The first act, called the Boston Port Bill, ordered the port of Boston to be closed until the people had paid for the destroyed tea. The customhouse was removed to Marblehead,[1] and the seat of government to Salem.

The second act changed the charter of Massachusetts and deprived the people of practically all their political rights. It provided for a military governor and forbade town meetings without permission of the governor, except for the purpose of electing officials.

The third act provided that any magistrate, soldier, or officer of the crown arrested for murder should be tried in England.

The fourth act made it legal to quarter troops on the people.[2]

[1] Instead of seeking profit by the affliction of Boston, Salem and Marblehead generously offered their wharves to Boston merchants. South Carolina sent rice, and New York, Virginia, Pennsylvania, and Connecticut sent either supplies or money.

[2] That is, the colonies where soldiers were stationed were required to furnish them not only with shelter but also with firewood, drink, bedding, soap, and candles.

The fifth act arranged a new province of Quebec[1] and established the old French laws in the territory. This prevented all representative government. It granted, however, freedom of worship to the Catholics in the province. This act included all that part of Canada which had been ceded by the French. It also included the Northwest Territory; that is, the land west of the Alleghenies to the Mississippi and north of the Ohio. This territory to-day embraces practically all the states of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Minnesota. (See sect. 145.)

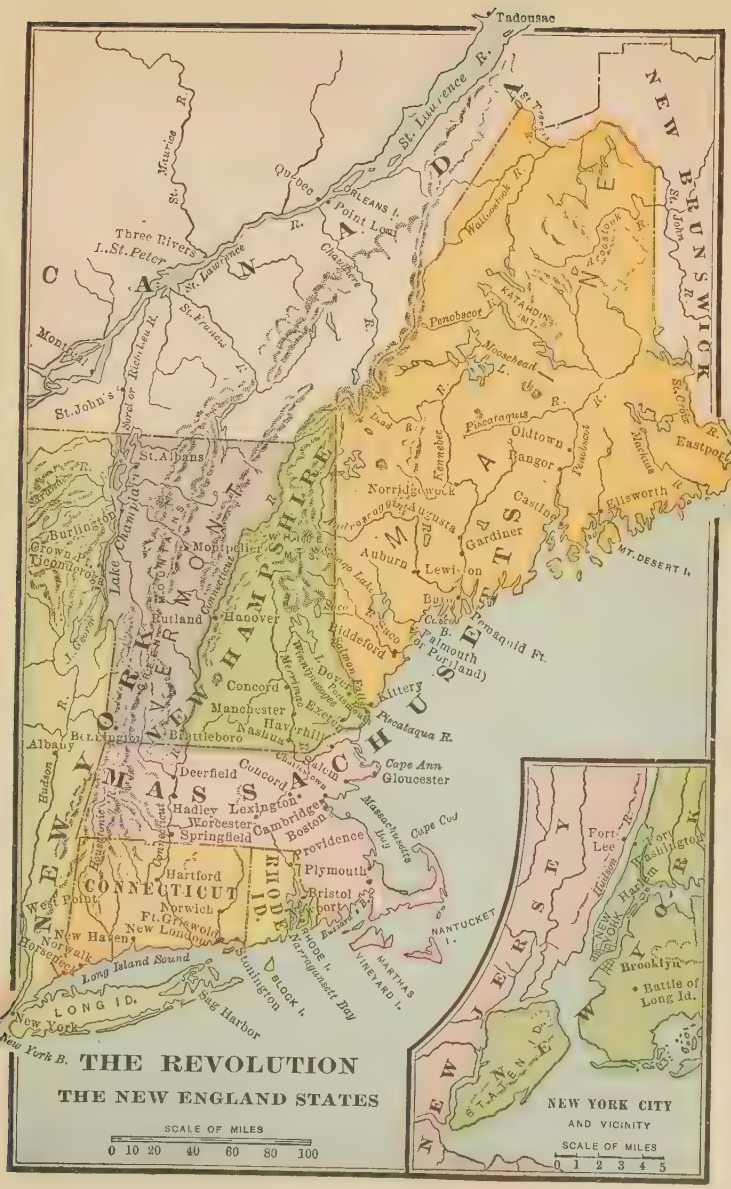
178. The First Continental Congress, 1774. The other colonies came to the assistance of Massachusetts. Led by Patrick Henry,[2] Virginia passed a resolution ordering the day on which the Boston Port Bill was to go into force to be a day of fasting, humiliation, and prayer.[3] When the governor heard of this resolution he dissolved the legislature. Committees of Correspondence were now named to write to the other colonies, urging the necessity of another congress. All the colonies except Georgia approved, and September 5, 1774, fifty-five delegates met in Carpenters' Hall, Philadelphia.

This was the First Continental Congress. This Congress presented a declaration of the rights of the colonists and a list of their grievances. It declared that as they could not properly be represented in Parliament, it was only right that their own provincial assemblies should make all local laws and lay all taxes. It was, they declared, unlawful for Great Britain to tax the people without their consent, to try persons without a jury, to dissolve the legislative assemblies, to refuse the right to hold

[1] The Quebec Act was really passed without reference to the action of the colonies. As it extended the province of Quebec southward to the Ohio, the colonies of Virginia, Connecticut, and Massachusetts claimed it violated their charters, which gave them the territory from sea to sea.

[2] In his famous speech, made in the Virginia Convention, Patrick Henry, in a burst of patriotic fervor, exclaimed: "There is no longer any room for hope. We must fight. I repeat it, sir; we must fight."

[3] The other colonies also observed this date as a day of fasting. The bells in Philadelphia were muffled and tolled, and similar evidence of intense feeling was shown in other places.


Tadousac
St. Lawrence R.
NEW BRUNSWICK
St. John R.
Quebec
ORLEANS I.
Point Levi
Three Rivers
L. St. Peter
St. Maurice R.
St. Lawrence R.
Chaudiere R.
St. Francis R.
Montreal
St. John's
Sorel or Richelieu R.
Lake Champlain
St. Albans
Burlington
Brown Mt.
Montpelier
Connecticut R.
Rutland
Hanover
Concord
Manchester
Haverhill
Brattleboro
Albany
Hudson R.
Deerfield
Concord R.
Hadley
Lexington
Worcester
Cambridge
Springfield
Boston
Salem
Cape Ann
Gloucester
Providence
Plymouth
Bristol
Hartford
CONNECTICUT
West Point
Norwich
Ft. Griswold
New London
New Haven
Norwalk
Horseneck
Long Island Sound
Stonington
BLOCK I.
Narragansett Bay
RHODE I.
Bristol
NANTUCKET I.
MARTHAS VINEYARD I.
Cape Cod
Massachusetts Bay
LONG I.
Sag Harbor
New York
New York B.
Penobscot R.
Kennebec R.
Androscoggin R.
Saco R.
Piscataqua R.
Merrimac R.
Connecticut R.
Passumpsic R.
Winooski R.
Otter Creek
Lake Champlain
Lake Memphremagog
Lake Dog
Lake Winnipiseogee
Lake Champlain
Wallingford
Mt. Ascutney
Green Mt.
White Mt.
Ossipee L.
Androscoggin R.
Kennebec R.
Penobscot R.
Moosehead L.
KATADIN MT.
Allagash R.
St. John R.
Wallamook R.
St. Croix R.
Eastport
Machias R.
Ellsworth
Castine
Penobscot B.
Oldtown
Bangor
Augusta
Gardiner
Auburn
Lewiston
Portland
Falmouth
Casco B.
Pemaquid Pt.
MT. DESERT I.
Biddeford
Saco
Kittery
Portsmouth
Dover
Exeter
Piscataqua R.
Merrimac R.
Connecticut R.
Lake Winnipiseogee
Lake Dog
Lake Memphremagog
Passumpsic R.
Winooski R.
Otter Creek

public meetings, and to quarter troops on the people in time of peace. An address was issued to the people of Great Britain and to the English king. The delegates agreed not to trade with England until the objectionable laws were repealed. It was voted to meet again on May 10, 1775, and take action on the answer of the king to their petitions.

179. Capture of Fort William and Mary, 1774. One of the delegates to the First Continental Congress was John Sullivan of New Hampshire. Learning from Paul Revere (December 13, 1774) that a force was coming to seize the gunpowder and supplies in Fort William and Mary at Newcastle, New Hampshire, he assembled a company and surprised the fort, hauled down the flag, and carried off the supplies. These supplies were later sent to Bunker Hill just in time for use by the patriots in that battle. "For the first time in American history, the British flag was torn down in armed rebellion."

180. The Battles of Lexington and Concord, April 19, 1775. General Gage, seeing the warlike feeling of the people, began to erect fortifications around Boston. The colonists collected ammunition and trained soldiers. Twenty thousand "minute men," citizens ready for duty at a minute's notice, were enrolled. General Gage heard of these preparations, and as he learned that a large quantity of military supplies had been gathered at Concord, sent a force of eight hundred regulars to seize these supplies. They were ordered to go by way of Lexington and arrest Samuel Adams and John Hancock, who were visiting there. The scheme was discovered, and by the aid of lanterns hung in the belfry of the Old North Church Paul Revere learned of the route of the troops. He rode furiously forward, warning the inhabitants and also Adams and Hancock, who fled. When the British troops reached Lexington in the early morning (April 19, 1775), they saw the minute men drawn up on the Common to oppose them. "Disperse, you rebels!" shouted Pitcairn, the British commander, and on their refusal to do so, he ordered his soldiers

to fire. Eight of the minute men fell dead and ten were wounded. From Lexington the British marched to Concord, where they again met the minute men, who "fired the shot heard round the world."[1] The English were repulsed. After destroying what few military stores they could find, they began the retreat to Boston. But the journey was a difficult one. On every side the minute men flocked in and poured a deadly fire on the retreating British. Man after man fell from the ranks and had not a fresh body of twelve hundred men met them at Lexington, the entire command would probably have been destroyed.

OLD NORTH CHURCH IN BOSTON

181. Ethan Allen at Ticonderoga, May 10, 1775. On the shores of Lake Champlain, guarding the route to Canada, were two forts, Ticonderoga and Crown Point. They were well supplied with all kinds of military stores, but were feebly garrisoned. Ethan Allen, with a band of vigorous youths called the Green Mountain Boys, resolved to surprise and capture the forts. On the night of May 9 he crossed Lake Champlain in the darkness with eighty-three followers, among them being Benedict Arnold.

[1] Emerson has immortalized this battle by his famous lines:

"By the rude bridge that arched the flood,
Their flag to April's breeze unfurled,
Here once the embattled farmers stood,
And fired the shot heard round the world."

At daybreak he appeared before the fort, rushed into the quarters of the commandant, and demanded the surrender of the fort. "In whose name?" asked the bewildered commandant. "In the name of the Great Jehovah and the Continental Congress!" shouted Allen. The fort surrendered, and two days later Crown Point, with its immense military supplies, fell. The patriots now controlled Lake Champlain and Lake George and the route between New York and Canada.

ETHAN ALLEN

182. Second Continental Congress, 1775. George Washington, Commander in Chief. The Second Continental Congress met at Philadelphia, May 10, 1775, the day of the surrender of Ticonderoga. For the next six years it was the central governing body of the nation.[1] The most important act performed by this Congress was the appointment (June 15, 1775), by unanimous vote, of George Washington as commander in chief of the Continental army.

183. Battle of Bunker Hill, June 17, 1775. In the meantime stirring events were taking place in Boston. General Gage, the British commander, had been joined by reënforcements and now had ten thousand men. He therefore decided to seize Bunker Hill, which overlooked the harbor and his camps. The Americans under Prescott also recognized the value of the position, and on the night of June 16 quietly seized the

[1] While the First Continental Congress was merely an advisory body, the Second Continental Congress gradually took to itself the powers of sovereignty. It assumed the defense of the colonies, raised armies, directed foreign affairs, and issued money for the troops.

hill and threw up intrenchments. When the surprised British saw the heights occupied by colonial troops, they at once prepared to assault them. The British column moved up the hill. As the Americans had very little powder they were ordered not to fire till they saw the whites of the eyes of the enemy. They waited, and at the signal, in a blaze of musketry, the Americans with deadly aim swept the British line away.

BUNKER HILL MONUMENT

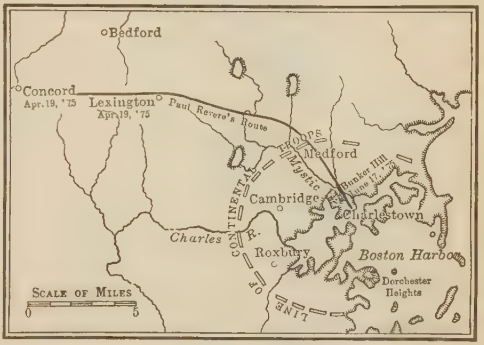
A second line came up and under the deadly aim of the colonists was cut to pieces. A third time the British charged, and as the Americans had no powder left they were compelled to withdraw. The British loss was more than one thousand, the American less than half that number. While the Americans were compelled to retreat, the battle was of the greatest benefit to them, for it showed the world that the colonists could and would fight to the end for their liberties.

184. Expedition against Quebec, 1775. Washington soon arrived in Cambridge and took command of the army, which numbered about sixteen thousand men. It was decided to send an expedition against Quebec, and the command was given to Richard Montgomery. He was ordered to march from Ticonderoga and, after capturing Montreal, to move eastward against Quebec. Another force, under Benedict Arnold, was sent through Maine to join Montgomery. Arnold's soldiers suffered fearful hardships in the Maine woods, but he and his brave men pushed onward. At last they reached Quebec, where Montgomery, who had taken Montreal, met them. On December 31, 1775, they attacked the strongest fortification in America and would, perhaps, have captured the city had not the brave Montgomery fallen mortally wounded.

ON THE WAY TO THE FRONT IN '76

The expedition failed,[1] and the soldiers returned in the following spring to Crown Point. It had important results, however. It drew to Canada soldiers that Howe had expected, and divided his troops. This prevented him from opening his campaign against New York until August, 1776.

Congress now determined to win the Canadians if possible from the British allegiance, and to that end resolved (February 15, 1776) to send to Canada an embassy composed of Benjamin Franklin, Samuel Chase, Charles Carroll of Carrollton, and Reverend John Carroll, later the first Catholic Bishop in America. The mission was not successful, for the bitter attacks made upon the Quebec Act and the intolerant laws of the colonies respecting religion led the Canadians to expect fairer treatment from England than from the American colonists.



THE SIEGE OF BOSTON

185. The Evacuation of Boston, March 17, 1776. Victory at Fort Moultrie. Washington, while drilling his raw troops, was tightening the chain of soldiery around Boston. Seeing the advantage of holding Dorchester Heights, which overlooked the city, he suddenly seized the hill (March 4, 1776) and during the darkness of night threw up earthworks. In the morning the British saw the Americans above them, with their cannon firmly planted to sweep their camp as well as their ships. Fearing to attack the intrenched colonists, they sailed away March 17, with all their troops, to Halifax. They took

[1] Richard Montgomery was born in Ireland, December 2, 1736. A tablet on the rocks at Quebec marks the spot where he fell.

with them nine hundred Loyalists, or Tories,[1] a name given to those who preferred to remain subject to the king of England. "It was," says Edmund Burke, "more like the departure of a people than the retreat of an army." Three months later the English fleet, under Sir Henry Clinton, appeared off Charleston harbor, where Colonel Moultrie, with his brave troops, had built a fortress of palmetto logs on Sullivan's Island. The British attacked with land forces, while their ships opened a heavy fire on the fort (June 28, 1776). The British troops were cut to pieces, while their vessels were so badly damaged that only one of the whole fleet escaped unharmed. While the battle was raging, the flag shaft was broken and fell outside the breastworks. Sergeant Jasper leaped over the walls and, amid the flying bullets, planted the flag of South Carolina again upon the ramparts. The fort was now named Fort Moultrie in honor of its brave commander.

SERGEANT JASPER SAVES THE FLAG

[1] The Loyalists maintained that the grievances of the colonists were not sufficient to cause a separation from Great Britain. They were most numerous in New York and Pennsylvania and comprised large numbers of the aristocracy or wealthy citizens and the professional classes. After the Declaration of Independence those who remained Loyalists were generally looked upon as traitors, and severe laws in all the states were enacted to imprison them and confiscate their property. Many, therefore, fled to Nova Scotia and England. The Loyalists were frequently called Tories, because that was the party in England that supported the king.

Clinton placed his men on transports and sailed with them back to New York, where he was welcomed by the Tories.

186. Declaration of Independence. In the meantime Congress saw that an absolute separation from Great Britain was inevitable,[1] and steps were now taken to that end. American ports were opened for free trade with all nations except Great Britain. Measures were at once taken to disarm the Loyalists.

On May 15, 1776, Congress decided to suppress every kind of authority under the crown, and the colonies were asked to make for themselves new state governments. Nine states at once drew up new constitutions.[2] On June 7 Richard Henry Lee offered in Congress this resolution: "*Resolved*, That these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent States; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British Crown; and that all political connection between them and the state of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved."

The motion was seconded by John Adams, and a committee of five, with Thomas Jefferson as chairman, was appointed to

[1] A pamphlet by Thomas Paine, called "Common Sense," was issued (January, 1776) with the approval of Franklin, Samuel Adams, and Dr. Benjamin Rush. This pamphlet boldly declared that the time had come for a separation from Great Britain. The writer maintained that it was absurd for a vast continent like America to be ruled by a little island three thousand miles away. He boldly attacked even the idea of rule by kings. "Common Sense" was "a firebrand," says Van Tyne ("American Revolution," p. 61), "which set aflame the ready political material in America. It said what many men were thinking but had no words to express." Over one hundred thousand copies were sold, and it paved the way for the Declaration of Independence.

[2] With few exceptions each of these new state constitutions had as a preamble a "bill of rights," which declared that the government established under it could not refuse freedom of speech, right of trial by jury, or freedom of worship. Provision was made for a governor, legislature, and judges. Only taxpayers or property holders could vote, and, contrary to the spirit of the "bill of rights" itself, belief in certain religious faiths would prevent a man from either voting or holding office. This is especially true in regard to the Catholics, who could not, for instance, be members of the House of Representatives in New Hampshire, Vermont, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, North Carolina, or Georgia.

draw up the declaration.[1] Action was postponed for three weeks to learn the opinion of the colonies. On July 2 it was carried by the vote of all the states except New York. It received, therefore, the votes of twelve states. On July 4 the Declaration of Independence, the immortal document written by Jefferson, was adopted by Congress, and the colonists "with a firm reliance on the protection of Divine Providence" pledged to each other their lives, fortunes, and sacred honor.[2] The colonies, now the United States of America, were declared to be absolved from all allegiance to the British Crown.

CHARLES CARROLL OF CARROLLTON

The joy of the people at the news of the adoption of the Declaration of Independence was unbounded. It was read to Washington's army and in all the cities and towns throughout the colonies. Bells were rung and bonfires lighted; in Philadelphia the royal arms in the room where Congress was sitting were cast out, and the great

[1] The five members were Thomas Jefferson, Benjamin Franklin, John Adams, Roger Sherman, and Robert R. Livingston. Jefferson wrote the entire Declaration, and it was adopted virtually as he presented it except a clause denouncing the slave trade. The Declaration was adopted July 4, 1776, but it was not signed until almost a month later (August 2).

[2] One of the signers was Charles Carroll from Maryland. The story that someone remarked that there were many Carrolls in Maryland and that he added the words "of Carrollton" that he might bear the full responsibility of his act has no historic basis, as that was his usual way of signing his name. Charles Carroll was born in Annapolis, September 19, 1737, and was educated abroad. On his return to this country he took up the fight against the taxation of the people for the Church of England. In 1776 he represented Maryland in the Continental Congress. He was the last surviving signer of the Declaration of Independence. He died in Baltimore, November 14, 1832.

INDEPENDENCE HALL

bell rang forth joyfully; in New York the gilded leaden statue of George III which stood on Bowling Green was pulled down and melted into bullets.[1]

187. The Articles of Confederation. The Continental Congress in the meantime had set to work to draw up a form of government which would join together all the new states in a firm bond of union. This new form of government was proposed in June, 1776, and was called the Articles of Confederation.

So great was the opposition to certain features of the Articles that they were not finally ratified until 1781. The Continental Congress in the meantime carried on the war merely by the common consent of the various states.

188. Plan of the British. Battle of Long Island, August 27, 1776. At the departure of the British from Boston, Washington believed they intended to strike New York, capture the Hudson, and thus cut off New England from the other colonies. Washington was right in his judgment, for early in July, 1776, a few days after the Declaration of Independence was proclaimed, General Howe arrived with twenty-five thousand men and encamped on Staten Island. His brother, Lord Howe, who had been made admiral by the British government, arrived on July 12. General Putnam, with nine thousand Americans, was intrenched on Brooklyn Heights, a point which overlooked and commanded New York City. General

[1] The following digest has been given for the causes of the Revolutionary War:

"I. The independent spirit of the colonists.
  a. They believed in the right to think as they pleased.
  b. They had sacrificed much for the sake of freedom.
  c. They had founded the colonies unassisted.
II. The military spirit aroused by the French and Indian War.
  a. Many had been trained to fight by British officers.
  b. The colonists found they were as brave as, and were better marksmen than, the regular British soldiers.
III. British oppression.
  a. The Navigation Acts.
  b. The Stamp Act.
  c. The tea tax."

Sullivan guarded, with four thousand men, the approaches to the Heights. Lord Howe attacked the American forces, and the battle of Long Island was fiercely fought (August 27, 1776). The Americans, outnumbered by the British five to one, were defeated with heavy loss, General Sullivan being taken prisoner. The British, aided by their war vessels, now endeavored to hem in the Americans by land and sea. The position of the patriots was indeed perilous, when fortunately a heavy fog fell over Long Island and the waters of the harbor. Washington took advantage of it and with the utmost secrecy removed his troops to the mainland of New York City.[1]

189. Howe's Offer of Peace. Lord Howe now endeavored to establish peace between the new states and England. He bore, he said, both the sword and the olive branch. He sent a letter to General Washington, addressed to George Washington, Esq., which Washington refused to receive, as Lord Howe gave him no official military title. Howe, thereupon, asked Congress to send a committee to treat of peace with him. Adams, Rutledge, and Franklin were sent as the committee. Howe promised full redress for all grievances and full pardon for all offenses if the states would return to their former allegiance to Great Britain. The request was refused by the committee. The United States was free, they declared, and resolved to remain so.

190. The British occupy New York. Washington retreats Northward. In a few days the British crossed over from Long Island[2] to the city of New York and occupied it. Washington had taken a position at Harlem Heights, where Howe attacked him (September 16, 1776) but was repulsed.

[1] At the first embarkation of the American troops the wife of a Tory sent her negro servant to inform the British. He met a German sentinel who could not understand him and locked him up as a suspicious character. In the morning a British officer examined him, and hearing his story, rushed off to examine the American outposts. The army had disappeared, and the last boats were then halfway across to New York.

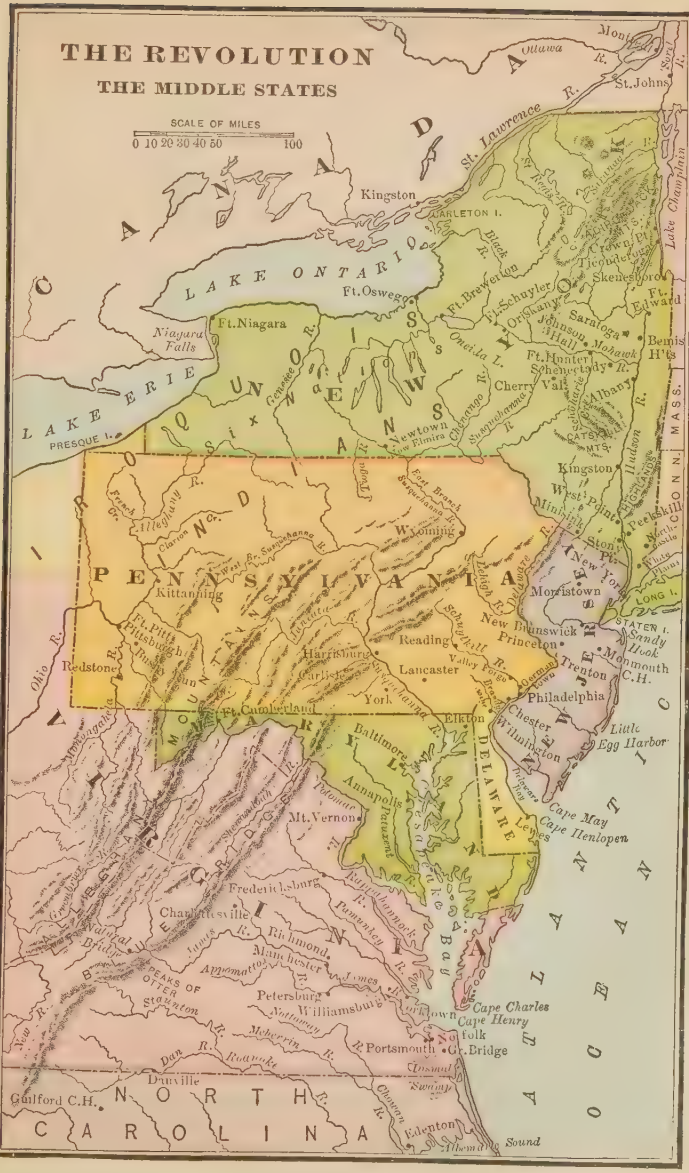
[2] To learn the plans of the British, Captain Nathan Hale went into their lines. He was recognized and hanged as a spy. His last words were, "I only regret I have but one life to lose for my country."

Hoping to attack Washington in a less advantageous position, Howe moved into Westchester and again attacked the patriots at White Plains (October 28, 1776), gaining a slight victory. Washington, thereupon, fell back to the intrenched camp at Northcastle and later entered New Jersey.

THE WAR IN NEW YORK, PENNSYLVANIA, AND NEW JERSEY

Howe now turned his attention to Fort Washington, which commanded the Hudson River. Washington had advised the abandonment of the fort to save its military stores and the three thousand troops in its garrison. General Greene, however, who was in command, believed he could hold it successfully. On November 16 the British attacked and took it after a heroic resistance on the part of the patriots, who lost as prisoners almost the entire garrison.

191. Battle of Lake Champlain. In the meantime the British under Carleton were moving with their army and boats from


THE REVOLUTION
THE MIDDLE STATES
SCALE OF MILES
0 10 20 30 40 50 100
CANADA
Ottawa R.
Montreal
St. Lawrence R.
St. Johns
Kingston
CARLETON I.
LAKE ONTARIO
Ft. Oswego
Ft. Niagara
Niagara Falls
LAKE ERIE
PRESQUE I.
Ft. Brewerton
Ft. Schuyler
Oriskany
Ticonderoga
Crown Pt.
Skenesboro
Ft. Edward
Lake Champlain
Saratoga
Johnson Hall
Mohawk R.
Bemis H'ts
Ft. Hunter
Schenectady
Cherry Valley
Albany
Six Nations
Oneida L.
Genesee R.
Chenango R.
Susquehanna R.
Newtown
New Rivers
Mohawk R.
Hudson R.
CATSKILL MTS.
Kingston
West Point
Minisink
Stony Pt.
Peekskill
CONN.
MASS.
Forest Gr.
Allegheny R.
Clarion
Kittanning
Wyoming
PENNSYLVANIA
Morristown
LONG I.
STATEN I.
Sandy Hook
Monmouth C.H.
New Brunswick
Princeton
Trenton
Reading
Harrisburg
Carlisle
Lancaster
York
Redstone
Ft. Pitt
Pittsburgh
Ohio R.
Ft. Cumberland
Philadelphia
Chester
Wilmington
Elkton
Little Egg Harbor
Baltimore
MARYLAND
DELAWARE
Annapolis
Mt. Vernon
Cape May
Cape Henlopen
Lewes
Fredericksburg
Rappahannock R.
Rappahannock R.
Potomac R.
Chesapeake Bay
Charlottesville
Rivanna R.
Richmond
James R.
Manchester
Appomattox R.
Petersburg
Williamsburg
Cape Charles
Cape Henry
Norfolk
Portsmouth
Gr. Bridge
Roanoke R.
Dan R.
Danville
Guilford C.H.
NORTH CAROLINA
Edenton
Albemarle Sound
ATLANTIC OCEAN

Canada. Benedict Arnold fell back with his forces as Carleton drove him southward. Reaching Lake Champlain, Arnold hastily constructed eighteen boats and attacked (October 11, 1776) Carleton's fleet off Valcour Island. Though his boats were finally lost, Arnold delayed Carleton's progress and reached Ticonderoga in safety. When Carleton arrived before the fort, he doubted his ability to take it and returned to Canada.[1]

192. Retreat across New Jersey. At the capture of Fort Washington, General Washington was at Hackensack on the west side of the Hudson with seven thousand men. General Charles Lee, with an equal number of men, was on the east side of the Hudson at Northcastle. Washington ordered Lee to cross the river, join forces with him, and face the enemy with the full strength of the army. Lee, hoping by a brilliant stroke to be raised to the supreme command, disobeyed and marched his troops slowly to Morristown.

Washington was therefore compelled to retreat through New Jersey and to cross the Delaware. Cornwallis, in full pursuit, reached this river as the Americans landed on the opposite side. Not a boat could be found to transport the British troops, Washington having captured every boat for seventy miles up and down the river. With keen disappointment Cornwallis was compelled to encamp until he could cross the river on the ice. In the meantime General Lee had been captured by the British. General Sullivan assumed command of the troops at Morristown and immediately pushed on to join Washington.

193. Battle of Trenton, December 25, 1776. Washington now determined to strike a decisive blow. Three regiments of Hessians under Colonel Rall were stationed at Trenton.

[1] "This strange conduct delayed the campaign of the following year, and thus Arnold's skill and wonderful energy were rewarded. But for this delay Burgoyne would have succeeded, there would have been no surrender at Saratoga, and there probably would have been no French alliance. This seemingly petty conflict set going vast forces which soon involved in war half the civilized nations of the world." — VAN TYNE, "American Revolution," p. 118

On Christmas night, while the Hessians[1] were celebrating the holiday, Washington crossed the Delaware, with two thousand five hundred men, through the floating ice. It was bitterly cold, and a blinding snowstorm was raging. After innumerable difficulties he reached the east bank and marched nine miles to Trenton, where he fell upon the Hessians and completely routed them. One thousand men and thirty-two officers were taken prisoners. Colonel Rall was mortally wounded. The Americans lost only four men. With his prisoners and military stores Washington now recrossed the Delaware.

194. Robert Morris's Great Aid. Distress of the Troops. The brilliant victory at Trenton aroused new courage in the hearts of all the patriots. The American troops now saw the people everywhere pulling down the red rags which had been fastened to their doors to secure British good will and protection. Hessians were marched through the streets of Philadelphia to convince the people of the victory, and a Hessian flag was sent to Congress at Baltimore. The rejoicings of the people were unbounded. Congress bestowed on Washington (December 27) almost unlimited military power for a period of six months, that he might raise and maintain a larger army. This was indeed necessary, for new dangers now beset the patriot army. The enlistments of many of the regiments were expiring, and they desired to return home. They had been without suitable clothing for months, while the paper money was constantly falling in value, till it became practically worthless. Washington saw it was necessary to have "hard" money. He wrote to his friend Robert Morris in Philadelphia to help him, — "If you could possibly collect a sum, if it were but one hundred and fifty pounds, it would be of service."

[1] The king of England, not being able to secure troops in his own country to wage war in America, sought to purchase them in Europe. He asked Russia to sell him twenty thousand men, but Russia declined. At length the prince of Hesse-Cassel and other German princes sold him thirty thousand troops. Since that time the word *Hessian* has been a term of contempt. Nothing enraged the Americans more against George III than this action.

On New Year's morning Morris went from door to door in Philadelphia, waking up his friends and asking for money. By noon he had raised fifty thousand dollars, which he sent to Washington. The soldiers reënlisted, and the name of Robert Morris deserves a place among the saviors of his country.

195. Battle of Princeton, January 3, 1777. Cornwallis, hearing of the disaster at Trenton, now rushed on with eight thousand men to attack Washington, who had again crossed the Delaware. The Americans had taken a position near Trenton on the south bank of a small stream — the Assanpink — that flowed into the Delaware. Cornwallis arrived late in the day and postponed his attack until the next morning. With the Delaware full of floating ice, Washington's retreat was cut off and his position was extremely dangerous. Cornwallis, viewing the situation, exclaimed with joy, "At last we have run down the old fox and we will bag him in the morning." But Washington did not intend to be caught. While his men were apparently throwing up intrenchments, and the camp fires were burning brightly, Washington slipped up the little creek, passed behind Cornwallis, and fell on his rear guard at Princeton. The roar of cannon in his rear awoke Cornwallis to his danger. The British were defeated (January 3, 1777). Washington took a strong position at Morristown Heights, and as this threatened his line of supplies, Cornwallis ordered a general retreat of the British to New York.

Philadelphia was safe, and Washington spent the winter undisturbed at Morristown. The brilliant military skill shown by Washington excited the greatest admiration in Europe. Many nations, especially the French, now desired to give secret or open aid to the struggling patriots. A young nobleman of France, Marquis de Lafayette, seeking in vain to get help from his country, secretly fitted out a ship at his own expense and came to America to join the forces of Washington without pay. His historic words were, "When first I heard of American independence my heart was enlisted!"

At this time a number of German and Polish officers arrived to aid the patriot cause; among them were Baron de Kalb,[1] Baron von Steuben,[2] Pulaski,[3] and Kosciuszko.[4] Von Steuben rendered very valuable service in drilling the American troops.

PULASKI

196. The British Plan of Campaign. The British plan of campaign for 1777 was as follows:

1. General Howe was to seize the city of Philadelphia, the capital of the "rebel government," and thereafter move northward to join his forces with those of General Burgoyne.

2. General Burgoyne, with nine thousand men, was to come down from Canada, opening the route to the Hudson, thus completely cutting off New England from the other colonies.

3. Colonel St. Leger, with two thousand men, was ordered to ascend the St. Lawrence to Oswego and then, coming down the Mohawk valley, to take Fort Stanwix with the aid of the Iroquois Indians and the Tories. When this had been done, he was expected to march eastward and join Burgoyne at Albany.

[1] De Kalb was born in Germany and later served in the French army. Coming to America in 1777, he was appointed a major general by Congress, and was killed, fighting bravely, in the battle of Camden.

[2] Von Steuben was born in Prussia. At the close of the Revolutionary War he received from Congress a large grant of land in New York and remained in America until his death (1794).

[3] Casimir Pulaski was born in Poland. He served on Washington's staff and fought bravely at Brandywine and Germantown. While in command of the celebrated Pulaski's legion he fell, gallantly fighting, before Savannah in 1779.

[4] Thaddeus Kosciuszko was a native of Poland and was an engineer of great skill. He erected the fortifications of West Point.

197. Battle of Brandywine. To carry out his part of the campaign, Howe intended to march across New Jersey and, capturing Philadelphia, turn northward to aid Burgoyne. Washington prevented this movement, and Howe decided to go by water to Philadelphia. On July 23, with eighteen thousand men, he sailed from New York and a week later appeared off the entrance to Delaware Bay. Signal fires along the coast told the patriots the position of the fleet. Washington marched quickly south with eleven thousand troops. Howe did not sail up Delaware Bay, but put again to sea and appeared next at the mouth of Chesapeake Bay. Washington marched to Wilmington (Delaware), and Howe, landing his troops, hurried to meet him. They met at Chadd's Ford on the Brandywine River (September 11, 1777). The Americans were defeated and driven back.

198. Howe takes Philadelphia. Battle of Germantown, October 4, 1777. Howe marched on Philadelphia, which he entered two weeks later. Washington, although driven back, had succeeded in delaying Howe so long that coöperation with Burgoyne was impossible. Washington gave the British no peace. A short time later (October 4, 1777) he made an attack on their camp at Germantown, a suburb of the city of Philadelphia. In a dense fog two of our divisions fired at each other. In consequence Washington was defeated and went into winter quarters at Valley Forge.[1] General Howe went into winter quarters at Philadelphia.

[1] The sufferings of the American army at Valley Forge were indescribable. The soldiers in their rude huts were exposed to the severe winter weather and were compelled, many of them, to sleep on the frozen earth. They were without suitable clothing, many being barefooted. Their food was flour mixed with water. Near-by farmers supplied the British in Philadelphia with ample provisions, while they left the patriotic American soldiers to starve. Agents of the British were constantly trying to bribe the soldiers to leave the patriot army and return to the king. A conspiracy was formed against Washington to displace him from his command. From its leader it was called the *Conway Cabal*. It failed in its purpose, and Washington rose higher than ever in the esteem of his countrymen.

199. Burgoyne's Expedition. Battle of Bennington. Let us see how Burgoyne had fared in the meantime. Leaving Montreal in June on his eventful march southward with an army of eight thousand men, composed of English, Hessians, and Indians, and a splendid train of artillery, he quickly captured forts Crown Point and Ticonderoga. When King George heard that the powerful fortress of Ticonderoga had fallen, he exclaimed with great glee, "I have beat all the Americans." He was soon to be grievously undeceived. Burgoyne pushed on towards Fort Edward. General Philip Schuyler, in command of the American forces, made his journey a difficult one. By burning bridges, felling trees across the paths and highways, choking up the rivers, and carrying off all the cattle, horses, and foodstuffs, Schuyler caused Burgoyne so much delay that he did not reach Fort Edward until the latter part of July — twenty-four days to march twenty-six miles.

BURGOYNE'S EXPEDITION

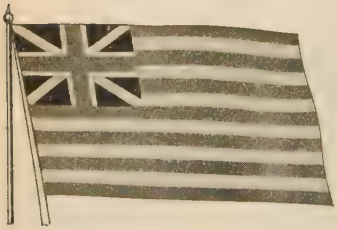
Hearing that the Americans had collected large military and other stores at Bennington, in the present state of Vermont, Burgoyne dispatched one thousand men under Colonel Baum to seize them. The brave New Hampshire militia and Green Mountain Boys, under Colonel John Stark, were waiting for them. On the 16th of August, 1777, the Americans met the

British. When Stark saw the enemy, he cried: "See, men! There are the redcoats! We must beat them to-day, or Molly Stark is a widow." The patriots were successful and took about seven hundred prisoners. The American loss was only fifty-six men, killed and wounded. This victory enabled the patriots to get in the rear of Burgoyne and cut off his supplies from Canada. Thousands of armed farmers now poured in from all parts of New England to aid the patriot cause.

200. Fort Stanwix. Battle of Oriskany. In the meantime St. Leger had landed at Oswego and, pushing eastward, besieged Fort Stanwix, or Fort Schuyler as it was at this time called. This fort was the site of the present city of Rome, New York. General Nicholas Herkimer, with eight hundred militia — largely German settlers — marched to the aid of Fort Stanwix. At Oriskany, a few miles west of the present city of Utica, Herkimer was attacked by a force made up of Mohawk Indians under Brant and Tories under Johnson and Butler. A desperate battle followed (August 6, 1777) in which the Indians and Tories were finally defeated. Herkimer, however, was fatally wounded. After St. Leger had been besieging Fort Stanwix for three days, the patriots in the fort suddenly rushed out and captured five British flags, as well as arms and provisions. They hoisted these flags upside down over the ramparts, and above them raised a flag made of a piece of blue jacket,

GENERAL HERKIMER AT ORISKANY

The Red Ensign, or Meteor Flag, was the commercial flag of England in 1775. It consisted of a red field, a blue canton, the red cross of St. George of England, and the white cross of St. Andrew of Scotland. When Ireland was joined to the Union in 1801, the cross of St. Patrick was added, making the Union Jack of the present day.



The American colonists in 1775 laid six white stripes on the red field of the Meteor Flag, making thirteen stripes to represent the colonies. The canton was retained to represent the empire. This flag was raised by Washington at Cambridge, January 2, 1776. It was the first distinctive flag representing colonial union.

On June 14, 1777, Congress removed the crosses from the canton and replaced them by a circle of thirteen white stars. Congress resolved "that the flag of the United States be thirteen stripes, alternate red and white; that the union be thirteen stars, white on a blue field, representing a new constellation." This flag was probably raised for the first time at Fort Stanwix, New York, August 3, 1777.

At first a new stripe and a new star were added for each new state. It was seen, however, that this would make the flag too large, and in 1818 Congress voted to return to thirteen stripes but to add a new star for each new state. The additional star is added on the fourth of July next succeeding the admission of the new state.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE FLAG

a white shirt, and some red flannel. In June Congress had adopted as our national flag the Stars and Stripes, and at Fort Stanwix it was for the first time thrown to the breeze. In the meantime General Schuyler had heard of the distress of the fort and sent Benedict Arnold with a force to relieve it.[1] On the

SURRENDER OF BURGOYNE

approach of Arnold, St. Leger fled to Oswego, abandoning his tents and munitions, and another blow was given to Burgoyne's hopes.

201. Surrender of Burgoyne, October 17, 1777. Schuyler was now removed from the command, and Gates took his place. Burgoyne saw the enemy drawing around him, while

[1] Arnold resorted to a stratagem to frighten the Indians who were with St. Leger. A half-witted Tory boy who had been condemned to death as a spy was promised his life if he would go to the British camp and report the advance of a large body of Americans. Filling his coat with bullet holes, he rushed headlong among St. Leger's Indians. When asked how many Americans were coming, he pointed to the leaves of the trees. The Indians, thoroughly terrified, threw down their arms and, after sacking the camp, scattered through the woods in all directions. During St. Leger's retreat these Indians, his former allies, hung on the flanks of his army, killing and plundering the British with true savage glee.

his supplies became scarcer every day. His Indian allies deserted him, and he heard nothing from General Howe, who, he expected, was on the way north up the Hudson to aid him. He resolved, therefore, to attack the Americans, and a battle was fought at Bemis Heights near Saratoga, September 19, 1777. The result of the battle was indecisive, but it was in effect a victory for the Americans, as Burgoyne never advanced further southward.

On October 7 Burgoyne again attacked the Americans, but was badly defeated. Benedict Arnold fought bravely here, his leg being shattered by a musket ball. Giving up all hope of assistance from Howe, hemmed in on all sides, Burgoyne surrendered, at Saratoga, October 17, 1777, his whole army of six thousand men and his military stores. The battle of Saratoga is considered to be one of the decisive battles of the world.[1] It had most important results for the American cause:

1. It completely destroyed the English plan of the war.

2. It prevented control by the English of the Hudson River and the state of New York.

3. It weakened the prestige of the English with the Iroquois confederacy.

4. It secured the invaluable aid of France with its army and navy.[2]

5. It encouraged France and Spain, the enemies of England in Europe, to open warfare, thereby weakening British power in America.

[1] "No military event can be said to have exercised more important influence on the future fortunes of mankind than the complete defeat of Burgoyne's expedition in 1777; a defeat which rescued the revolted colonies from certain subjection and which, by inducing the courts of France and Spain to attack England in their behalf, insured the independence of the United States."— Creasy, "Fifteen Decisive Battles of the World"

[2] As early as May, 1776, France had sent two hundred thousand dollars to aid the American cause and in July of the same year merchandise to the value of almost six hundred thousand dollars. At the same time she allowed American privateers to fit out in her ports. Spain also secretly loaned money and furnished supplies in great quantities to the American colonists.

6. By the capture of an entire English army the enthusiasm of the colonists was aroused everywhere.

7. It induced the English to seek once more reconciliation with the United States.[1]

202. The French Alliance, 1778. The British Retreat to Philadelphia. Battle of Monmouth. In the autumn of 1776 Congress had sent a commission, of which Benjamin Franklin was a member, to Paris to seek the aid of the king of France. For a long time the commission was unsuccessful, as the finances of France were at this time in a very low condition and she did not wish war with England. The surrender of Burgoyne and the renewed attempts by the king of England at reconciliation with the revolted colonies induced the king of France to sign a treaty, February 6, 1778. By this treaty the Americans were bound to accept no terms of peace until the British government should recognize the independence of the United States. The United States and France agreed that neither should make peace without the consent of the other. Spain, in 1779, and Holland, in 1780, joined France and declared war on England. A French fleet was dispatched to our assistance. Lord Howe had been superseded in the command of the British by Sir Henry Clinton. Hearing of the approach of the French fleet, Clinton abandoned Philadelphia (June 18, 1778) and marched to New York. Washington pressed behind him and overtook the British rear guard at Monmouth, where he attacked

[1] On February 17, 1778, Lord North proposed in Parliament a bill of reconciliation, granting to the former colonies everything they asked except independence. Free pardon was offered to all; every act of Parliament passed after 1763 to which objection had been raised was repealed; every duty, tax, or assessment whatever, except for the usual regulation of commerce, that had been levied in the colonies was annulled. It was provided that all money collected in the colonies should be expended in the colonies. Commissioners were sent to America to put these proposals into effect at once. Had these laws been passed earlier, there is little doubt that the colonies would have accepted them, but Congress now refused "to consider propositions so derogatory to the honor of an independent nation." The failure of these peace negotiations led to a change in warfare. From this time the war was waged with bitter severity.

it, June 28, 1778. At the moment of victory Charles Lee,[1] who had been exchanged and had again received a command, ordered a disgraceful retreat. Washington fortunately came up in time to save his army, and the British, having lost two thousand men, hurried on to New York.[2]

203. Military Operations at Newport. Capture of Stony Point. Washington now hoped to take New York City with the aid of the French ships under Count d'Estaing, but the sand bars at the entrance to the harbor prevented their approach. He dispatched the fleet, therefore, to attack Newport, which was held by the British. A severe storm scattered the French vessels and they withdrew for repairs to Boston. The British later abandoned Newport. New York City was the only point north of Virginia held by them until the war closed.

GENERAL ANTHONY WAYNE

Hoping to draw General Washington away from New York, Clinton sent expeditions of Tories to ravage unprotected places. Martha's Vineyard and New Bedford were swept by fire; Portsmouth and Norfolk, in Virginia, were burned and the defenseless citizens murdered. In Connecticut the towns of

[1] For his cowardice or treachery in this battle Lee was tried by court-martial and suspended from the army. For insulting Washington he was later expelled, and died in obscurity.

[2] While carrying water to the tired soldiers Molly Pitcher saw her husband shot down at his cannon. She at once took his place and loaded and fired the gun during the battle. Washington, in recognition of her bravery, made her a lieutenant, and Congress gave her half pay for life. She died in 1832, and her grave at Carlisle, Pennsylvania, is marked by a monument erected by a grateful people in her honor.

New Haven, Fairfield, and Norwalk were destroyed. These raids were marked with a trail of blood and cruelty resembling more the warfare of savages than of civilized men.

Washington, however, had other plans in view. He quietly sent (July, 1779) General Anthony Wayne — called "Mad Anthony" because of his bravery — up the Hudson to capture Stony Point. This was an important post in the river below West Point and had been captured by Clinton six weeks before. With twelve hundred men, at midnight, July 16, Wayne silently stole up the hill towards the fort. Before the garrison was aware of their presence they sprang over the outworks and carried all before them at the point of the bayonet. Wayne destroyed the fort, as he was not strong enough to hold it, and withdrew, taking with him all the military stores.

204. Indian Warfare. The Massacres in Wyoming and Cherry Valleys. The Indians were now let loose on the frontier settlements. The Seneca tribe and a regiment of Tories, led by Colonel John Butler, invaded the Wyoming Valley in Pennsylvania. Fighting against overwhelming numbers, the brave American patriots were surrounded, July 3, 1778, and defeated.

The Indians put their captives to death with the most horrible tortures. The Tories rivaled in ferocity their savage allies. The beautiful valley was left a smoldering desert, and the women and children, driven to the woods, perished miserably.

Another band of Tories and Indians, under the infamous Joseph Brant,[1] came up the Mohawk valley and fell on Cherry Valley (November 10, 1778), where they put to death men, women, and children. Washington determined to stop these massacres and sent General Sullivan against the Indians, whom he met and overwhelmed at Newtown, on the site of the present city of Elmira. With fire and sword Sullivan now swept like

[1] Joseph Brant was a Mohawk Indian, who had been well educated and became later a missionary for the Church of England. At the outbreak of the Revolution he placed himself at the head of the Mohawk, as thorough a savage as the most bloodthirsty of his followers. With his Tory allies he spread death and destruction wherever he waged his inhuman warfare.

a whirlwind through the territory of the Iroquois, utterly destroying forty villages. The power of the Indian confederacy was broken forever.

205. War in the West. Western settlements had been made by pioneers from New York, Pennsylvania, Virginia, and the Carolinas, who had pushed westward wherever a favorable route opened before them. The British government attempted at first to stop this westward movement by the Proclamation Line of 1763 (see sect. 144), but later it favored the movement, as it was unable to check it. In 1768, by the treaty of Fort Stanwix, the Iroquois ceded the lands claimed by them between the Ohio and the Tennessee rivers, throwing open to settlement Kentucky and a large part of Tennessee. Large land companies were formed to open up the territory, but the outbreak of the Revolution destroyed the plans. In the meantime Daniel Boone had penetrated into Kentucky in 1769 and James Robertson had founded settlements in Tennessee. The Kentucky villages were attacked by the Shawnee Indians. When these Indians were later defeated (October 10, 1774), on the Great Kanawha River, they ceded (1774) all their lands south of the Ohio. In 1776 the Cherokee attacked the Tennessee settlements, but they were finally overcome and gave up the territory between the Tennessee and Cumberland rivers.

DANIEL BOONE

206. George Rogers Clark. Father Gibault. The British commander at Detroit, Lieutenant Governor Henry Hamilton, now urged the Indians to a united attack on the American

frontier settlements.[1] A young Virginian, George Rogers Clark, was commissioned by Patrick Henry, governor of Virginia, to lead an expedition into the West and seize the English forts north of the Ohio and east of the Mississippi rivers. Embarking (June 26, 1778) at Fort Pitt, he sailed with his force

CLARK'S EXPEDITION

down the river to a point forty miles above its mouth. Here he landed and began his perilous journey across swamps, through forests and thickets, at times without food or shelter. Kaskaskia fell into their hands (July 5, 1778), and a little later Cahokia, without firing a shot. Here Clark met Father Peter Gibault,[2]

[1] To encourage them in their murderous work, Hamilton paid the Indians bounties only on scalps. As they received nothing for prisoners, they took none.

[2] Father Gibault himself, like Clark, had reason to complain of his later treatment. "At one time," says Roosevelt, "he was suffering from poverty, due to his loyal friendship to the Americans; for he had advanced Clark's troops both goods and peltries for which he had never received payment. In a petition to Congress he showed how this failure to repay him had reduced him to want." "Next to Clark and Vigo," says Judge John Law, "the United States are more indebted to Father Gibault for the accession of the states comprised in what was the original Northwest Territory than to any other man." François Vigo was an Italian who aided Clark on many occasions.

the pastor of Kaskaskia, who joined himself to the American cause. Setting out at once for Vincennes, Father Gibault induced the French and the Catholic Indians to yield to Clark, who, in consequence, easily took the fort. The British later took the fort, but could hold it only a short time, for Clark marched two hundred and thirty miles through snow and swamps, amid fearful hardships, and again captured it. This territory was annexed to Virginia and was called the Illinois country. This heroic march of Clark and the friendly offices of Father Gibault gave us the title to this section.[1] The Great Lakes, instead of the Ohio, became, in consequence, the southern boundary of British possessions at the conclusion of the war.

JOHN BARRY

207. War on the Ocean. Barry and Jones. At the outbreak of the war the patriots were greatly hampered by the lack of a naval force. While no regular navy was available to destroy British shipping, private cruisers were built, and during the next four years did great damage to English vessels. These cruisers crossed the sea, hovered around the coasts of England, and captured in three years six hundred vessels. Congress, in the meantime, had appointed Esek Hopkins of Rhode Island commander of a little navy of five ships,

[1] At this time England was at war with Spain and planned to seize the Spanish settlements on the Gulf of Mexico. With the aid of a force which she intended to send from Canada down the Mississippi, she would control that great river from its source to its mouth. Before these plans could be carried out by the English, Galvez, the Spanish governor of New Orleans, seized Baton Rouge, Natchez, Mobile, and Pensacola, and completely destroyed the English plan of campaign. This action rendered it possible for George Rogers Clark to hold his conquests. The city of Galveston is named in honor of this Spanish governor.

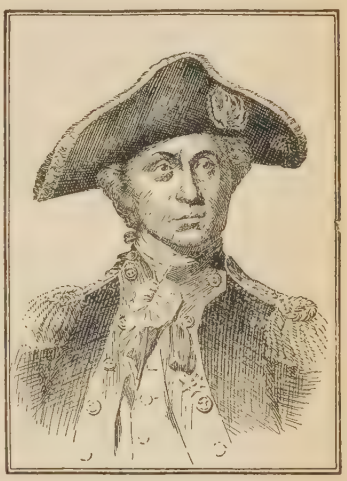
THE REVOLUTION

THE SOUTHERN STATES

SCALE OF MILES

0 50 100 150

but this navy was soon destroyed or dispersed. Another attempt at the formation of a navy was made by the purchase of several merchant vessels. The command of one of these vessels, the *Lexington*, was given to Captain John Barry.[1] The *Lexington*, which was named in honor of the first battle of the Revolution, soon met and captured the British man-of-war *Edward*, after a vigorous contest. Barry fought battles everywhere along the coasts, inflicting severe losses on the enemy. In March, 1794, Captain Barry was placed at the head of the list of commanders, with the rank of commodore. He has been called the Father of the American Navy. In Captain Barry's squadron, when it first set out to maintain our flag upon the sea, was John Paul Jones,[2] a lieutenant on the *Alfred*. Later Jones made his name forever illustrious in naval annals. With three vessels he sailed



JOHN PAUL JONES

[1] Commodore John Barry was born in Wexford, Ireland, and came to America at the age of thirteen. He rapidly rose in the merchant marine and at twenty-five was captain of one of the finest packet ships of the day. At the outbreak of the Revolution he gave up the best ship in America to serve the patriot cause. Lord Howe offered him command of the best frigate in the English navy and fifteen thousand guineas if he would join the British forces. Barry answered, "I have devoted myself to the cause of America and not the value and command of the whole British fleet can seduce me from it."

[2] John Paul Jones was born in Scotland, and entered the American service in 1775. He made many cruises and received for his victory over the *Serapis* a gold medal with the thanks of Congress and a gold sword from the king of France. After the Revolution he became a rear admiral in the Russian navy, and died in Paris in 1792. He was a man of remarkable courage and daring. In one of Jones's maneuvers during the great sea fight the British captain asked, "Have you struck?" "Struck!" replied Jones; "I have not begun to fight!"

boldly for the English coasts. His vessel, the *Bonhomme Richard*, had been a French merchant vessel and had been given to him by the king of France. Off Flamborough Head, a bold promontory on the east coast of England, he met a fleet of English merchantmen bound for the Baltic Sea under the conduct of two men-of-war, the *Serapis* and the *Countess of Scarborough*. Although the odds were against him, Jones at once made an attack, and after a hand-to-hand struggle captured both vessels. He transferred his men and stores to the *Serapis* just in time, for his own vessel soon sank beneath the waves.

208. The War in the South. Savannah taken. Fall of Charleston. In 1778 the war was transferred to the South, the British hoping to capture each state in succession. Georgia passed first into the hands of the English through the surrender of Savannah (December 29, 1778) and the defeat of the Americans at Augusta. The royal governor was again placed in office. The Americans under Lincoln, aided by the French fleet, attempted (October 9, 1779) to recapture Savannah, but were badly defeated. They lost one thousand men, among them being the gallant Polish officer Pulaski and the hero of Fort Moultrie, Sergeant Jasper. The French fleet sailed for France and Lincoln withdrew to South Carolina. Clinton now came down from New York by sea with eight thousand men and was later joined by three thousand others. Encouraged by their successes, they now pushed northward and surrounded Charleston, where Lincoln had intrenched himself. The British prepared to assault the city with overwhelming numbers, and Lincoln, seeing how hopeless his position was, surrendered (May, 1780) his army of three thousand men with his military stores. It was a fearful blow to the patriot cause.[1] The British could now overrun South Carolina; but the militia, under the

[1] The English statesman Horace Walpole exclaimed on hearing of the surrender, "We look on America as at our feet." But he was sorely mistaken, as events soon proved.

brave Marion, Sumter, Pickens, and Clark, kept up an incessant warfare, striking first here, then there, until the British forces left the state.

209. Battle of Camden. King's Mountain, 1780. Congress now placed Gates in command of the army in the South against the recommendation of Washington, who had no faith in him. He pushed into South Carolina, where the British under Cornwallis were intrenched at Camden. Gates attacked the enemy (August 16, 1780), but was completely routed. The brave De Kalb was mortally wounded, and Gates saved himself by fleeing on horseback till he was in safety, sixty miles from the battlefield. This was perhaps the darkest hour of the Revolution, for the three Southern colonies were now in the hands of the British. Two American armies had been crushed, and no force apparently remained to withstand the onward march of the British to Virginia.

But the patriots were not yet conquered. A short time later (October 7, 1780) a force of British regulars and Tories under General Ferguson was attacked in the highlands of South Carolina at a point called King's Mountain. The patriots were the backwoodsmen, who with deadly aim cut to pieces the British force. Ferguson was killed and his command annihilated.

210. The Treason of Benedict Arnold, September 22, 1780. About this time a heavy blow fell on the patriot cause. Benedict Arnold, who had fought so bravely at Ticonderoga, Quebec, and Saratoga, formed a plot to deliver up the most important post in America, — West Point. Two years previously Arnold was in command of Philadelphia and was involved in troubles of various natures. He was sentenced to be reprimanded by Washington. Remembering Arnold's bravery and moved by deep pity for him, Washington's reprimand was of the mildest sort. Arnold was stung, however, by the disgrace and sought revenge. Six months later he asked Washington for the command of West Point, and obtaining it, at once entered into correspondence with Clinton to betray it. Major John André

was selected to carry out the details. He met Arnold at West Point, but on his way back[1] was captured with the fatal papers concealed in his boots. He was tried and hanged as a spy. Arnold escaped to the British vessel, the *Vulture*. He received for his infamy about thirty-two thousand dollars and a position on the staff of General Clinton.

211. General Greene in the South. A third army was now raised in the South, with General Nathanael Greene[2] in command. He immediately began a series of maneuvers that showed him to be the most skillful general in the American army except Washington. Knowing he had not a sufficient force to attack Cornwallis in the open field, he resolved to wear him out. With the aid of Daniel Morgan (the sharpshooter), William Washington, Kosciuszko (the brave Polish engineer), Henry Lee, Marion, Sumter, Pickens, and other equally able officers he began a series of the most brilliant military operations.

212. Battles of Cowpens, Guilford Court House, Hobkirk's Hill, Eutaw Springs. Morgan attacked Tarleton, who had been sent against him by Cornwallis at Cowpens (January 17, 1781), and completely destroyed his forces, thus cutting off one third of Cornwallis's army. That general now started in pursuit of Greene, who desired to lead him further and further into a

[1] While riding along the wooded road near Sleepy Hollow, André was startled by three men, who suddenly confronted him. These men were Paulding, Van Wart, and Williams. One of the party wore a Hessian coat, and André, mistaking him for one of the British allies, asked him if he did not belong to the lower, or British, party. They answered Yes, and André at once told them he was a British officer on important business. They then declared themselves to be Americans, and André's heart sank. They ordered him to dismount, found the papers, and led him away to the nearest military post. André offered the patriots bribes of all kinds, but they scorned them. Congress voted them a medal and a pension of two hundred dollars a year for life.

Read the description of this locality in "The Legend of Sleepy Hollow" in Irving's "Sketch Book."

[2] General Nathanael Greene was born in Rhode Island in 1742. During the Revolution he took part in the battles of Trenton, Princeton, Brandywine, and Germantown. His wonderful campaign against Cornwallis in the South gave him a place in our military history second only to Washington. He died in 1786.

92
87
82
77
72
50
45
40
35
30
25
BRITISH POSSESSION
Lake of the Woods
L. SUPERIOR
Sault Ste. Marie
Quebec
Montreal
Ottawa R.
St. Lawrence R.
L. MICHIGAN
L. HURON
L. ONTARIO
L. ERIE
Oswego
Albany
Ft. Niagara
Detroit
Boston
Portsmouth
Mississippi R.
SPANISH POSSESSION
MASSACHUSETTS (AND VIRGINIA)
CONNECTICUT (AND VIRGINIA)
MASS. (AND N.Y.)
CONN.
NEW YORK
PENN.
Trenton
Philadelphia
Pittsburgh
New Haven
New York
St. Joseph
St. Louis
Vincennes
Ohio R.
Kaskaskia
Missouri R.
Wabash R.
Illinois R.
MD.
Baltimore
James R.
Richmond
Norfolk
Cumberland R.
Nashville
Raleigh
NORTH CAROLINA
Cape Hatteras
Arkansas R.
Mississippi R.
SOUTH CAROLINA
Tennessee R.
Yazoo R.
Cape Fear
GEORGIA
Savannah R.
Charleston
Savannah
Claimed by Spain until 1795
Natchez
Chattahoochee R.
Pearl R.
SPANISH POSSESSION
New Orleans
Pensacola
St. Augustine
GULF OF MEXICO
ATLANTIC OCEAN
THE UNITED STATES IN 1783
Showing Western Land Claims of States
and the Boundaries fixed by Treaty of 1783
SCALE OF MILES
0 100 200 300 400 500
92 Longitude 87 West 82 from 77 Greenwich

hostile country, far from his base of supplies. The chase was maintained for two hundred miles, when Greene suddenly turned around and fought Cornwallis at Guilford Court House (March 15, 1781). Greene was defeated, but Cornwallis's forces were so badly cut up that he turned and retreated. Greene now became the pursuer, but Cornwallis hurried on to join the British forces in Virginia. Greene, leaving Cornwallis to go his way, hastened southward to clear the British out of South Carolina. At Hobkirk's Hill, two miles from Camden, he was attacked by Rawdon (April 25, 1781) and defeated, but, as usual, fell back in such good order that Rawdon gave up Camden to save his army.[1] Lee and Marion gained victories in many small contests, and Greene, pushing onward, met the British again at Eutaw Springs (September 8, 1781), where he was defeated. The British now held themselves in Charleston under the protection of their fleet. In thirteen months Greene had practically recovered the Carolinas and Georgia from British rule.

213. Surrender of Cornwallis, October 19, 1781. As we saw above, Cornwallis had abandoned the Carolinas and marched into Virginia, where a British force under Phillips and the traitor Arnold was plundering the country. Lafayette with three thousand men was at Richmond, and Cornwallis resolved to capture him; but Lafayette was too clever and retreated skillfully with his weak force. At length Cornwallis, desiring for the sake of his supplies to be near the sea, marched down the peninsula and with seven thousand men took position at Yorktown. Lafayette, who had been reënforced by Steuben, pressed him with five thousand men. Now occurred the supreme moment of the long struggle. In August news reached Washington that the magnificent and powerful French fleet of twenty-eight warships and six frigates, under Count de Grasse, had sailed from the West Indies for Chesapeake Bay. Washington

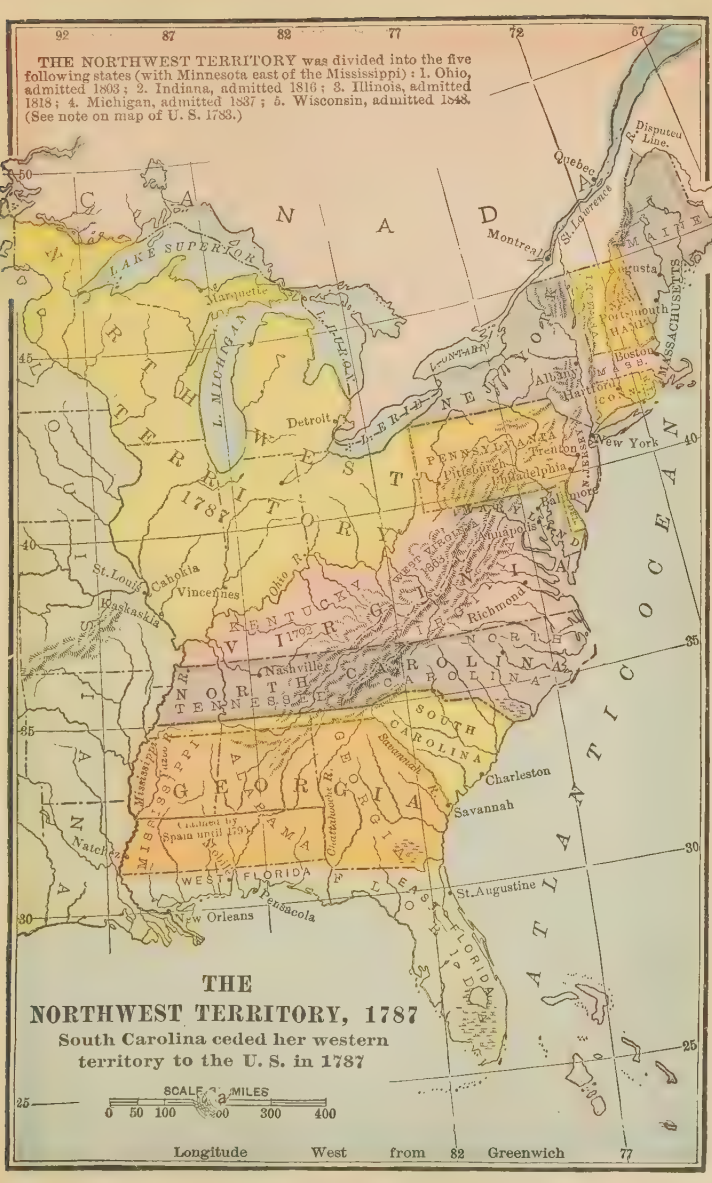
[1] Greene's report of his operations is singularly graphic: "We fight, get beat, and fight again."

decided on the daring plan of marching four hundred miles to Virginia, joining Lafayette, and hemming in Cornwallis by land, while the French fleet cut off his retreat by sea. Pretending he was preparing to attack New York,[1] Washington, with two thousand Americans and five thousand French soldiers under Rochambeau, who had joined him from Newport, left the Hudson and hurried southward.[2] Before the British knew what he was about, he had reached Philadelphia and, embarking at the head of Chesapeake Bay, was approaching Yorktown. There he soon joined Lafayette. Sixteen thousand men, two thirds of whom were Frenchmen, were now encamped across the narrow peninsula to cut off Cornwallis. In the meantime the French fleet appeared. An English squadron followed from the West Indies and attacked the French fleet, but was repulsed. Cornwallis had no hope of escape left. For two weeks shot and shell fell on the British camp from American and French guns. Day by day the lines were moved nearer and nearer to the British camp. Cornwallis, seeing the hopelessness of his position, surrendered on the 19th of October, 1781. His army of seven thousand two hundred and forty-seven men and eight hundred and forty-seven seamen

ROCHAMBEAU

[1] Washington wrote letters which he knew would fall into Clinton's hands. These letters described plans for an attack on New York. Clinton was deceived and did not learn until too late what Washington was really doing.

[2] At this time Robert Morris again came to the aid of Washington with money. Rochambeau furnished twenty thousand dollars and from France arrived supplies and half a million dollars.


THE NORTHWEST TERRITORY was divided into the five following states (with Minnesota east of the Mississippi): 1. Ohio, admitted 1803; 2. Indiana, admitted 1816; 3. Illinois, admitted 1818; 4. Michigan, admitted 1837; 5. Wisconsin, admitted 1848. (See note on map of U. S. 1783.)
92
87
82
77
72
67
50
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CANADA
Disputed Line
Quebec
Montreal
St. Lawrence R.
LAKE SUPERIOR
Marquette
L. MICHIGAN
L. HURON
L. ONTARIO
L. ERIE
Detroit
Albany
Boston
Hartford
New York
Trenton
Philadelphia
Baltimore
Annapolis
Richmond
Augusta
Portsmouth
MASSACHUSETTS
MAINE
NEW YORK
PENNSYLVANIA
NEW JERSEY
MARYLAND
VIRGINIA
NORTH CAROLINA
SOUTH CAROLINA
GEORGIA
TERRITORY 1787
NORTHWEST
Ohio R.
KENTUCKY 1792
TENNESSEE 1796
Nashville
St. Louis
Cahokia
Vincennes
Kaskaskia
ILLINOIS
INDIANA
Charleston
Savannah
Savannah R.
Tallahassee
Ceded by Spain 1795
Natchez
Mississippi R.
Tombigbee R.
Alabama R.
WEST FLORIDA
Pensacola
New Orleans
St. Augustine
FLORIDA
ATLANTIC OCEAN
THE
NORTHWEST TERRITORY, 1787
South Carolina ceded her western territory to the U. S. in 1787
SCALE OF MILES
0 50 100 200 300 400
Longitude West from 82 Greenwich
77

self-governing states. The states who claimed the land at last generously gave it up to the national government, and it was organized as the Northwest Territory in 1787.

This cession had most important results. It bound the newly formed states together at a time when through dissension the confederation was in danger of falling to pieces.[1]

216. The Ordinance of 1787. The ordinance provided that Congress should appoint a governor, secretary, and three judges; that a legislature should be elected; that no less than three nor more than five states might be formed from the territory, and as soon as any division had sixty thousand free inhabitants it would be admitted as a state with representation in Congress.[2] The ordinance also provided that freedom of worship should be allowed; that trial by jury should be granted; that slavery should be forever prohibited; and that schools and the means of education should be forever encouraged. The provision against slavery was of the greatest importance, as it prevented that system from gaining a foothold in these great states.[3]

By a contract with Congress the Ohio Company was granted one and one half million acres at the junction of the Ohio and

[1] "We are accustomed," says Daniel Webster, "to praise the lawgivers of antiquity . . . but I doubt whether one single law of any lawgiver, ancient or modern, has produced effects of more distinct, marked, and lasting character than the Ordinance of 1787."

The ordinance followed in many respects the Virginia Ordinance of 1784, which had been drafted by Jefferson.

[2] The states that have been formed are Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin. A part of a sixth state, Minnesota, was also made from this territory. In 1785 Congress had arranged the land system, which was later followed in disposing of Western lands. Townships were marked off six miles square. Each township was subdivided into thirty sections one mile square. One lot in every section had to be reserved for the support of schools.

[3] The land south of the Ohio was claimed by Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia. South Carolina resigned her claim in 1787. In the section of North Carolina west of the mountains an independent state was organized by the inhabitants. Finally, in 1790, North Carolina ceded Tennessee to the United States. In 1792 Kentucky was formed into a separate state with the permission of Virginia. Alabama and Mississippi in 1802 were ceded by Georgia to the national government.

the Muskingum rivers. New England settlers crossed the Alleghenies. They built boats and floated down the Ohio to the mouth of the Muskingum River, where Marietta was founded in 1788.

217. Shays's Rebellion, 1786. The United States were now independent, but dangers beset them on every hand. They were heavily loaded with debt,[1] and the armies were still unpaid. The paper money was practically worthless, and everywhere there was great distress. In western Massachusetts the farmers were unable to pay their debts. Seeing their cattle seized for debt and their homesteads sold because of the heavy land taxation, they arose in rebellion in 1786 under Daniel Shays, a captain in the continental army. They attacked the courthouses in Worcester, Springfield, and other places, but were finally defeated and dispersed.

218. Defects of the Articles of Confederation. It was now seen that the Articles of Confederation, under which Congress was acting, were too weak to sustain a strong government. Under these Articles Congress had no power to enforce its laws; it could not levy taxes for any purpose; it could not regulate commerce, as it could not enforce any of its own regulations. There was, therefore, no freedom of trade between the states, one state passing tariff laws against another. Trade was prostrate, owing to the condition of the currency through the widespread use of paper money which the states printed at will.[2] There was no president, the head of Congress being merely the member who was presiding at the time. There was no organized system of Federal courts. There was one House of Congress, elected by the state legislatures and therefore not directly in touch with the people. Each state

[1] It has been estimated that the total debt contracted by the colonies in the war was one hundred and forty million dollars. France spent directly sixty million dollars in our service, besides very large sums elsewhere in her war with Great Britain. The debt of England was increased about five hundred and sixty million dollars.

[2] One dollar of paper money at this time was worth about one or two cents in good money.

cast only one vote in Congress, whatever the number of its members there.[1] A unanimous vote was required to amend the Articles, and it was found in fact practically impossible ever to secure a unanimous vote. In brief, the national government was not a federal state but merely a league of states, or confederation, acting through a body of delegates in the Continental Congress.[2]

In 1785 delegates from Virginia and Maryland met at Alexandria. With the assistance of George Washington they endeavored to settle disputes that were constantly arising over the navigation of the Potomac River. The meeting led to a discussion of the larger subject of the general commercial regulation of Chesapeake Bay and its tributaries. The Virginia legislature (January 21, 1786) asked the states to send delegates to a conference at Annapolis in September, 1786, to consider trade relations among the states. As only five states responded, little was accomplished. Madison, Hamilton, and John Dickinson were present and declared there must be some central authority to carry out trade agreements if any were made. Another invitation was thereupon sent to the colonies for a convention to be held in Philadelphia in May, 1787, to revise the Articles of Confederation in order that a stronger government might be secured.[3]

[1] According to the size of the state, the membership from each state could be no less than two nor more than seven members. The members of each state determined how the one vote from that state should be recorded on any question in Congress.

[2] To add to the difficulties of the situation Congress was so deeply in debt that it could not pay even the interest on the public debt. This period has often been called "the Critical Period of American History."

[3] "The Congress of the Confederation, made up of delegates from states, could not pass effective laws or enforce its orders. It could ask for money but not compel payment; it could enter into treaties but not enforce their stipulations; it could provide for raising of armies but not fill the ranks; it could borrow money but take no proper measures for repayment; it could advise and recommend but not command. In other words, with some of the outward seemings of a government, and with many of its responsibilities, it was not a government." — McLaughlin, "Confederation and Constitution," pp. 50–51

219. The Constitutional Convention. The Constitutional Convention of 1787 was composed of fifty-five members,[1] appointed by the legislatures of the several states. All the states were finally represented except Rhode Island, which sent no delegates. George Washington was chosen as the presiding officer. Four months of discussion followed, and it was seen that the Articles of Confederation would have to be entirely thrown aside and a new constitution formed, even though the Convention had been called merely to revise the Articles.

220. Compromises of the Constitution. There were many compromises necessary in the Convention to secure the adoption of the Constitution. The first question arose over representation. The small states feared lest the large states would be able through greater representation to deny them their rights. It was finally arranged that in the House of Representatives the members should be elected according to population; in the Senate every state, large and small, should have two votes. This satisfied the smaller states. A second question arose on the basis of representation. Should slaves who could not vote be enumerated when the population was taken as the basis of representation? It was finally agreed that in the enumeration to determine the number of representatives to which a state was entitled, five slaves should count as three freemen. The third question touched the slave trade, and it was forbidden to prohibit this trade before 1808.[2]

[1] The number of delegates that attended the Convention was fifty-five. Sixteen did not sign. The signers were therefore only thirty-nine. Among the members were George Washington, Benjamin Franklin, James Madison, James Wilson, Gouverneur Morris, Robert Morris, John Dickinson, Rufus King, John Rutledge, George Mason, Charles Pinckney, and Charles C. Pinckney. The meetings of the Convention were secret, but James Madison kept full notes of the proceedings and they are of the greatest value in telling us the story of the Convention. They were not published, however, until 1840.

[2] "While the last members were signing," says Madison, "Dr. Franklin, looking toward the president's chair, at the back of which a rising sun happened to be painted, observed to a few members near him that painters had found it difficult to distinguish in their art a rising from a setting sun. 'I have,'

221. The New Constitution. The new Constitution was adopted September 17, 1787, with these six objects as given in the preamble:

1. To form a more perfect union.
2. To establish justice.
3. To insure domestic tranquillity.
4. To provide for the common defense.
5. To promote the general welfare.
6. To secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity.

As soon as the Constitution was adopted by the Convention it was laid before Congress, which was asked to refer it to the people of the states for ratification. The favorable vote of nine states was necessary to adopt it. There was an exceedingly bitter contest in some of the states, especially Massachusetts, Virginia, and New York. While this contest was pending, a series of eighty-five brilliant essays appeared in defense of the Constitution. They were written by Madison, Hamilton, and Jay. These essays have been published under the title "The Federalist." "The Federalist" had a profound effect on public opinion and undoubtedly aided greatly in securing the adoption of the Constitution. The ninth state necessary to ratify the Constitution was secured June 21, 1788, amid great rejoicing and booming of cannon. The new Constitution was at last adopted. "Now the thirteen clocks all struck together," exclaimed John Adams.

The new Constitution differed radically from the old Articles of Confederation. Under these Articles, as we have seen, there was one House of Congress but no president and no developed system of federal courts. The great weakness of the national government lay in the fact that it could not levy

said he, 'often and often in the course of this session looked at that behind the president without being able to tell whether it was rising or setting; but now at length I have the happiness to know that it is a rising and not a setting sun.'"

taxes or enforce its decrees. The new Constitution provided for three departments:

1. The Legislative, to consist of a Congress made up of two houses, — a Senate and a House of Representatives.[1] This department was created to make the laws.

2. The Executive, to consist of a president and officers to carry out these laws.

3. The Judicial, to consist of Federal courts to interpret the laws.

While the legislature of each state could still enact laws for its state, the Constitution became the supreme law of the land, to be obeyed by the national and state governments and by the people.

222. Effects of the New Constitution. The new Constitution effected the following important results:

1. It brought into existence our strong national government.

2. It established the presidency of the nation.

3. It founded the Supreme Court and the Federal courts.

4. It gave Congress power to raise money by taxation.

5. It conferred on Congress the right to regulate foreign and domestic commerce and thereby established freedom of trade between the states.

6. It laid broad and deep the foundations of our national life.

Many of the states had desired a Bill of Rights as a part of the Constitution and had accepted that instrument only when assured amendments would be added covering the idea of a Bill of Rights as soon as action could be secured. In 1791 the first ten amendments were therefore ratified and added to the Constitution. These amendments safeguarded the rights of the people by securing the freedom of religion, of speech, of the person, and of property. (See digest of the whole Constitution in Appendix.)

[1] The members of the Senate and of the House of Representatives were to be paid out of the national treasury instead of by the states, as was the case under the Articles of Confederation. It was thought that this would give the members a broader national viewpoint on national questions.

SUMMARY

The American Revolution was begun because of the repeated attempt of the British Parliament to levy taxes on the colonists without their consent.

On July 4, 1776, independence was proclaimed by the colonists.

On October 17, 1777, Burgoyne surrendered. France thereupon openly aided us with money, men, and a fleet.

On October 19, 1781, Cornwallis surrendered.

In 1783 the king of England acknowledged our independence.

In 1787 the new Constitution was adopted by the Constitutional Convention.

In 1789 the Constitution went into effect, and we became one of the nations of the earth.

Dates to be remembered:

1774. First Continental Congress.
1775. Battles of Lexington, Concord (April 19).
1776. Declaration of Independence (July 4).
1777. Surrender of Burgoyne (October 17).
1778. France acknowledges the independence of the United States.
1781. Surrender of Cornwallis (October 19).
1783. Treaty of Peace with Great Britain.
1787. The Constitution adopted.
Ordinance of the Northwest Territory.
1789. Beginning of our government under the Constitution.

Persons to know about:

George Washington, James Otis, Samuel Adams, John Adams, John Hancock, Benjamin Franklin, Thomas Jefferson, James Madison, Hamilton, Patrick Henry, Burgoyne, Nathanael Greene, John Barry, Cornwallis, Lafayette, Steuben, Pulaski, Kosciuszko, John Paul Jones, Charles Carroll of Carrollton.

Map work:

Locate Boston, Lexington, Concord.

Locate Mount Vernon, Allegheny and Monongahela rivers, Fort Duquesne.

Draw the route of Burgoyne.

Locate Trenton, West Point, Valley Forge, Yorktown, Savannah.

Locate Vincennes, Detroit, St. Louis.

Locate Oriskany, Saratoga, Ticonderoga, Bennington, Montreal, Lake Champlain.

REVIEW EXAMINATION

1. Mention three attempts made before 1776 to unite the English colonies in common action, and tell how far each was successful.

2. Give four important reasons for the success of the Americans in their revolution against so formidable a power as England.

3. The American Revolution was begun with hardly a thought of independence. What changed the attitude of the revolutionists and made possible the Declaration of Independence?

4. Explain why the defeat of Burgoyne was so important to the American cause.

5. Why is Washington regarded as a great general, although he was more often defeated than victorious in the open field?

6. By what authority was the United States governed (*a*) from 1776 to 1781? (*b*) from 1781 to 1789? By what authority has it been governed from 1789 to the present time?

7. Explain three great compromises made in the Constitutional Convention.

8. Point out three leading defects in the Articles of Confederation. State provisions in the Constitution that remedied these defects. Show why the Articles of Confederation marked an important step in our political history.

9. Give five reasons that make it justifiable to apply to the period of Confederation the title, "The Critical Period of American History."

10. Mention four things which the Constitution accomplished.

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1760. Accession of George III
1761. Writs of assistance
1763. The conspiracy of Pontiac
1765. Passage of the Stamp Act
The Stamp Act Congress
1766. Repeal of the Stamp Act
1767. The Townshend Act
1770. The Boston Massacre
1772. Burning of the *Gaspee*
Committees of Correspondence
1773. Boston Tea Party
Burning of the *Peggy Stewart*
1774. Five Intolerable Acts
First Continental Congress (Philadelphia)
1775. Lexington and Concord (Apr. 19)
Siege of Boston (Apr. 19, 1775–Mar. 17, 1776)
Second Continental Congress (May 10) (Philadelphia)
Capture of Ticonderoga (May 10)
Washington made commander-in-chief (June 15)
Bunker Hill (June 17)
Invasion of Canada by Montgomery and Arnold
Attack on Quebec (Dec. 31)
1776. "Common Sense" published
British evacuate Boston (Mar. 17)
Organization of state governments
Clinton attacks Charleston, S. C. (June 28)
Declaration of Independence (July 4)
Battle of Long Island (Aug. 27)
Captain John Barry captures the *Edward*
Harlem Heights (Sept. 16)
Lake Champlain (Oct. 11)
White Plains (Oct. 28)
Fort Washington (Nov. 16)
Retreat of Washington across New Jersey (Nov. 21–Dec. 8)
Battle of Trenton (Dec. 25)
1777. Battle of Princeton (Jan. 3)
Battle of Oriskany (Aug. 6)
Battle of Bennington (Aug. 16)
Battle of Brandywine (Sept. 11)
Capture of Philadelphia by the British (Sept. 25)
Battle of Germantown (Oct. 4)
Surrender of Burgoyne (Oct. 17)
Valley Forge (1777–1778)
1778. French alliance (Feb. 6)
Battle of Monmouth (June 28)
Battle of Wyoming (July 3)
George Rogers Clark captures Kaskaskia (July 5)
Battle of Cherry Valley, N. Y. (Nov. 11)
British capture Savannah (Dec. 29)
1779. Clark captures Vincennes (Feb. 25)
Capture of Stony Point by Wayne (July 15)
John Paul Jones's victory (Sept. 23)
General Lincoln defeated at Savannah (Oct. 9)
1780. Charleston captured by Clinton (May 12)
Battle of Camden (Aug. 16)
Treason of Arnold (Sept. 22)
Battle of King's Mountain (Oct. 7)
1781. Battle of Cowpens (Jan. 17)
Battle of Guilford Court House (Mar. 15)
Battle of Hobkirk's Hill (Apr. 25)
Battle of Eutaw Springs (Sept. 8)
Surrender of Cornwallis (Oct. 19)
1783. Treaty of peace (Sept. 3)

CHAPTER X

"America has a natural base for the greatest continuous empire ever established by man." — GLADSTONE

PHYSICAL FEATURES OF THE UNITED STATES

223. The Three Great Geographical Regions. The condition of any people is affected to a greater or lesser degree by their physical surroundings. The geography of a country, which means its mountains, rivers, plains, coast-line, rainfall, soil, and mineral deposits, has a vital influence on its history.[1]

The principal relief features of our country consist of three great geographical regions. These regions are, first, the Eastern Highland, which includes the Atlantic Slope and the Appalachian Highland; second, the Central Plain; third, the Western Highland.

The Eastern Highland extends from the Atlantic Ocean to the crest of the Appalachian Mountains. Good harbors are numerous; many rivers furnish abundant water power; in the Middle and Southern states the bays and rivers afford waterways to the interior. The settlement of the Atlantic Slope proceeded very slowly and at the time of the Revolution it was under the rule of Great Britain.

The Central Plain comprises the territory from the crest of the Appalachians westward to the crest of the Rockies, — an area of wondrous fertility, traversed by the rivers of the great Mississippi system. Intrepid French explorers and Catholic

[1] Scientific discoveries during the past two centuries have, however, modified physical disadvantages. The steam engine, canals, and railroads have overcome distances and brought markets and cities close together. Scientific irrigation is changing deserts into gardens, and engineering projects are changing swamp lands into thriving homesteads.

missionaries discovered most of this region, and over the greater part of it waved the flag of France until the downfall of French power in America as the result of the French and Indian War.

The Western Highland comprises the territory extending from the Rocky Mountains westward to the Pacific Ocean.

Courtesy of Alexis E. Frye

RELIEF MAP OF THE UNITED STATES

224. The Effect of Physical Features on the Settlement of the Country. The English made their earliest settlements along the Atlantic seaboard, as this was the region most accessible to voyagers from Europe. Forests and mountains and tribes of hostile Indians tended to prevent them from moving westward to the great Central Plain.[1] This compact grouping of the colonies led to a well-ordered system of government and a harmony of ideas which at the proper time resulted in securing independence from Great Britain.

[1] In fact, George III in 1763 drew a line around the sources of the rivers which flow into the Atlantic. This was the so-called "Proclamation Line." The country west of this line was set apart for the Indians, and the colonists for the time were forbidden to settle there. (See sect. 144.)

Through the passes of the Appalachians and along the waterway of the Ohio a great westward movement began soon after the War of Independence. Emigrants from Europe seeking homes on the vast Central Plain swelled the number of the colonists. Cities were built, governments were organized, and states were formed until the entire Mississippi basin became the scene of a prosperous civilization.

The Western Highland was less fertile, not having sufficient rainfall except in certain parts of the Pacific coast, but the discovery of gold, silver, and other metals in 1848 caused a tide of immigration to this region.

225. The Resources of the United States. The United States is wonderfully endowed with all the physical requirements of a great civilization. Thus, by means of the water power of the East manufacturing was begun, and this was later developed by protective laws; the fields of the South produce an abundance of cotton, sugar, and rice; in the great upper Mississippi basin grow wheat and corn, more than enough for the entire nation; coal, iron, and other valuable minerals abound; the waters along the coast, as well as the rivers, abound in fish; fruit grows in abundance in almost every section; the Hudson River, the Erie Barge Canal, and the Great Lakes form a continuous water route from New York to the heart of the country, while the Mississippi and its tributaries furnish a waterway for thousands of miles; railroads in every direction overcome any natural obstacles that would impede the pathways of commerce.

Except Alaska and the tropical possessions, the United States has a temperate climate,[1] — the climate of the countries that lead the world's progress. The rainfall, except on parts of the Western plains and Western Highland, is abundant.

[1] The climate of the United States is, in its general features, like that of the European countries from which our immigrants have come. These countries are, in general, Norway, Sweden, Great Britain, Ireland, Denmark, Germany, the Netherlands, France, Austria-Hungary, Portugal, Spain, Italy, and Russia.

The products of the farms, forests, and mines; the deep waterways of the bays, rivers, and lakes; the excellent water power of the streams, — all have helped to make the United States the richest and most progressive nation of the world.

With settlers drawn from every country of Europe, the United States enjoyed during the nineteenth century the most wonderful progress recorded in the pages of history.

SUMMARY

There are in the United States three great geographical regions: first, the Eastern Highland; second, the great Central Plain; third, the Western Highland.

In physical resources the United States has almost everything for its own needs. For food it has wheat, corn, meat, fish, potatoes, rice, sugar, and fruits; for manufacturing it has water power, coal, lumber, cotton, oil, and minerals.

Its coasts have excellent harbors; its rivers and the Great Lakes furnish waterways to the heart of the continent.

Its climate is that of the temperate zone, which develops activity and enterprise.

It has for much of its area a sufficient rainfall.

These resources and advantages, added to the enterprise of the settlers, have produced the most wonderful political development in history.

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CHAPTER XI

" A rising nation, spread over a wide and fruitful land, traversing all the seas with the rich productions of their industry, . . . advancing rapidly to destinies beyond the reach of mortal eye. . . . May that Infinite Power which rules the destinies of the universe lead our councils to what is best and give them a favorable issue for your peace and prosperity." — JEFFERSON, " First Inaugural Address "

THE PERIOD OF UNION

WASHINGTON'S ADMINISTRATIONS, 1789–1797

226. The Inauguration; Political Parties. George Washington[1] was unanimously elected first president of the United States and John Adams was chosen vice president. Washington's journey from his home in Virginia to New York, which was at that time the national capital, was a triumphal progress. As there were no railroads it was necessary to make the journey by stagecoach. Everywhere the people, with banners, music, and flowers, welcomed him. He was inaugurated April 30, 1789, on the balcony of the Federal Building, which occupied the site of the present Subtreasury on Wall Street in New York City. The oath was administered by Robert R. Livingston, Chancellor of the State of New York, who turned to the vast populace assembled below and cried, " Long live George Washington, the president of the United States! "

[1] George Washington was born in Virginia, February 22, 1732. In his early life he was a surveyor and at nineteen was appointed major by Governor Dinwiddie. At the outbreak of the Revolution he was chosen commander in chief of the American army by the Continental Congress. He was elected president in 1788 and reëlected in 1792. He is by common consent the leading figure in our national life. He died at Mount Vernon, December 14, 1799, loved and respected by the entire nation.

Washington belonged to no political party.[1] Two parties had now arisen in the country, however, the Federalist and the Republican, or Democratic-Republican as it was frequently

FEDERAL BUILDING, WALL STREET, NEW YORK

called. The Federalists were led by Hamilton and believed in a strong central government; the Democratic-Republicans, with Jefferson as their leader, would give the greatest possible power to the individual states.

[1] Washington's first cabinet consisted of Thomas Jefferson, Secretary of State; Alexander Hamilton, Secretary of the Treasury; Henry Knox, Secretary of War; and Edmund Randolph, Attorney-General. In this cabinet were men of entirely different political beliefs. Hamilton was a strong Federalist, while Jefferson was an equally strong Democratic-Republican. From these Democratic-Republicans descended the present Democratic party. The Republican party of to-day did not come into existence until 1854.

Washington's nonpartisan cabinet existed until 1795. After that day his cabinet was made up only of Federalists. As a rule since that time a cabinet is composed only of members of the same party as the president. There was much discussion at first as to the title to be given to the president. It was suggested that he be called "His Highness, the President of the United States of America and Protector of their Liberties." Finally, it was agreed that no title should be given by law, and he has always been called "Mr. President."

forty-two million dollars, while the states had contracted obligations to the amount of nearly twenty-five million dollars. The total debt, therefore, was nearly eighty million dollars.

Hamilton[1] proposed that the United States should pay off all the indebtedness. There was no objection to the payment of the foreign and domestic debts. There was, however, the strongest opposition to the payment of the state debts by the Federal government. It was maintained by many that the states should pay off their own debts, Congress having no authority to do so.[2] The measure became a law finally through the efforts of Hamilton, who made a compromise with Jefferson. The Democratic-Republicans, having in their party many Southerners, desired the national capital to be built on the shores of the Potomac River; the Federalists desired it to be built on the Delaware. As a result of the compromise between Hamilton and Jefferson the Federalists agreed that Philadelphia should be the seat of government for ten years, from 1790 to 1800. After 1800 the permanent national capital should be located on the Potomac River. As the leader of the Democratic-Republicans Jefferson induced his followers to accept the compromise and enough Democratic-Republicans voted for the payment of the debts to carry the measure. This placed our national credit on the strongest foundation.

229. The Tariff and Internal Revenue Tax. The national revenue was now largely increased by a tariff laid on imports; that is, a tax or duty was placed on foreign goods arriving at

[1] Alexander Hamilton was born in the island of Nevis in the West Indies in 1757. Coming to the American colonies he served in the Continental army under Washington. He was admitted to the bar and was a member of the Continental Congress in 1782 and the Constitutional Convention of 1787. He was one of the authors of "The Federalist." For six years (1789–1795) he was Secretary of the Treasury in President Washington's cabinet. He died July 12, 1804, as the result of a duel with Aaron Burr.

[2] Hamilton maintained that as the Federal government now collected the customs duties that formerly had gone into the treasuries of the states and by which they paid their debts, it was only right now for the national government to assume the state debts.

our ports.[1] A little later an internal revenue tax was placed on whisky and other liquors. This tax was levied directly by the Federal government on distillers and brewers. It caused trouble for a time, as we shall see in the Whisky Rebellion.

The protective tariff showed the right of the Federal government to tax foreigners; the internal revenue tax showed its right to tax its own citizens.

230. Establishment of a Federal Bank. The United States Mint. Hamilton[2] also proposed the establishment of a national, or Federal, bank to act as financial agent of the government. This, he believed, would build up the public credit and would help to provide a uniform currency. After considerable opposition the bank which was known as the First Bank of the United States was chartered in 1791 for twenty years. It was located at Philadelphia. This bank issued currency which was accepted everywhere in place of the old state bank notes issued by the different states, which people frequently refused to take.

Provision was also made for a mint to issue gold and silver coins with a system of decimal currency which had been proposed by Jefferson. This system took the place of the English method of reckoning in pounds, shillings, and pence, which had been in use in America. The dollar was made the unit. It was divided, as we so well know to-day, into ten dimes, or one hundred cents.

[1] This tariff (enacted July 4, 1789) was both a revenue and a protective tariff. It secured revenue by the tax laid on goods made in foreign factories. It was protective because it tried to protect the American manufacturer against the competition of foreign goods by placing so high a duty or tax on them that they could not be imported with profit. It was thought this would allow Americans to start factories here and manufacture most of the goods needed in the United States. The Northern states, as a manufacturing section, in general favored a protective tariff, the Southern states, being agricultural, opposed it, as they had to buy manufactured goods and the tariff raised the prices on all goods.

[2] Daniel Webster, in recognition of Hamilton's great work in establishing the national credit, said, "He touched the dead corpse of public credit and it sprang upon its feet."

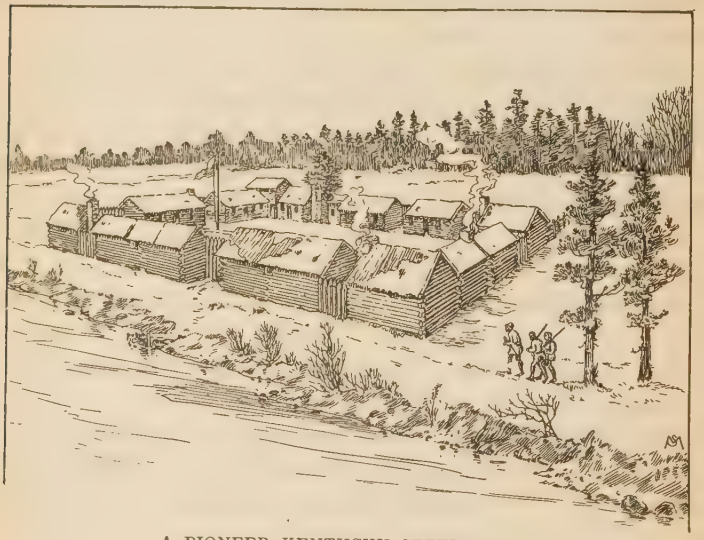
231. The Appointment of Bishop Carroll. Until 1784 the Catholic Church in America had been subject to the Vicar Apostolic of London. Steps were now taken to make the church in America a distinct body from that of England by the appointment of a Bishop. In 1789 the first Episcopal See in America was erected in Baltimore, and Reverend John Carroll[1] was consecrated the first Bishop. In 1789 he founded Georgetown College, which was transferred sixteen years later to the Society of Jesus.

232. The Admission of Vermont, 1791. The first state to be admitted after the formation of the government was Vermont, which became a member of the Union in 1791. The territory of this state had been claimed by Massachusetts, New Hampshire, and especially by New York. In 1777 the people in convention declared themselves to be an independent state. They fought gallantly during the Revolution. An adjustment of the difficulties with her neighbors was finally made by Vermont, and she became the fourteenth state of the Union in 1791. Vermont was the first state to abolish slavery within its limits.

233. The Admission of Kentucky, 1792. Kentucky had been a common hunting ground for the Indians when Daniel Boone and other famous hunters entered the territory and made a settlement (1775) at Boonesborough. The territory belonged to Virginia. The people of Kentucky asked (1784) for separation from Virginia. It was later granted to them by that state, and in 1792 Kentucky became the fifteenth state of the Union.

[1] Most Reverend John Carroll was born in Maryland in 1735 and was educated for the most part in Belgium. At the age of eighteen he entered the Society of Jesus. In 1773, on the suppression of the Order, he went to England. Just previous to the outbreak of the Revolution he came to America. He was a member of the Embassy sent by Congress to Canada in 1776. In 1784 he was appointed Vicar Apostolic of the United States. Five years later he was consecrated Bishop, and in 1808 was named Archbishop with four suffragan dioceses: Philadelphia, Boston, New York, and Bardstown (Kentucky).

234. The Admission of Tennessee, 1796. The territory of Tennessee belonged to North Carolina. Hunters and settlers under Robertson and Sevier crossed the mountains from North Carolina and formed (1769), in the territory of the Cherokee Indians, the Watauga Association on the Watauga River, which is one of the headwaters of the Tennessee. These settlers later formed the state of Franklin, a fact that led to armed



A PIONEER KENTUCKY SETTLEMENT

difficulties with North Carolina, which refused to recognize the new state. In 1790 North Carolina ceded the disputed territory to the United States, and under the name of Tennessee it was admitted to the Union as the sixteenth state in 1796.

235. The First Census, 1790. The first census of the United States was taken in 1790. It showed a population of nearly four million inhabitants. In rank of population Virginia led, followed by Pennsylvania, North Carolina, Massachusetts, New York, Maryland, South Carolina, and Connecticut. About one fifth of the population were slaves. The largest city was

Philadelphia (with only forty-two thousand people), followed by New York (with thirty-two thousand), Boston (with eighteen thousand), Charleston, and Baltimore.

Travel was exceedingly slow and costly. It required eight days to go from Boston to New York and cost twenty-five dollars. From New York to Washington required ten days. In westward travel the roads were even poorer and the time required much greater to cover each mile. Wherever possible sailing vessels were used to carry passengers and goods.

236. Battle of the Maumee, or Fallen Timbers, 1794. The westward movement of the population, especially across the Ohio River, aroused the hostility of the Indians, who were already incited against us by the English military and civil officials. Several expeditions were sent to overawe the Indians. The first, under General Harmar, destroyed Indian villages and supplies, but brought about no permanent results. General St. Clair then marched against them with two thousand troops (1791). Heedless of Washington's advice to guard against a surprise, he was led into an ambush and his army was destroyed. As a result of these disasters the Indians became more active than ever. General Wayne was now sent to command an expedition. He met the Indians (August 18, 1794) at the Maumee River, not far from the present city of Toledo. Here the battle of the Maumee, or Fallen Timbers, was fought. The Indians were so completely defeated by the "chief that never sleeps," as they described Wayne, that they signed a treaty in 1795 at Greenville, ceding a territory of about twenty-five thousand square miles of territory, now comprising southern and eastern Ohio, to the United States. Wayne's victory opened the large area now embraced in the state of Ohio to peaceful settlement.

237. The Admission of Ohio. Prince Gallitzin. In the meantime a steady stream of pioneers had been pouring into the Ohio valley from beyond the Alleghenies. One stream was made up of emigrants from New England and New York. They settled in the so-called Connecticut Reserve. Here the

city of Cleveland was founded in 1796. Another stream coming from Virginia entered southern Ohio. Towns were founded along the Ohio, the earliest among them being Marietta and Cincinnati[1] in 1788.

In 1800 the state of Connecticut ceded the Connecticut Reserve to the United States. As Virginia threw open to settlement her military lands, the two streams of immigrants joined to form one community, which became the state of Ohio.

Only seven years after Wayne's treaty with the Indians, so great had been the flood of settlers, Ohio was admitted (1803) into the Union as the seventeenth state.

At this time a Russian nobleman, Prince Gallitzin,[2] was ordained to the priesthood and began his missionary labors in the wilds of Pennsylvania and Maryland. He founded (1799) the settlement of Loretto in western Pennsylvania and ministered throughout that unbroken country.

238. The Whisky Rebellion, 1794. From the time of their settlement in western Pennsylvania the farmers had been accustomed to make whisky from grain in their stores and on their farms. They could carry the whisky over the bad roads to the Eastern cities more easily than they could transport the bulky quantities of rye and corn from which it was made and they could always secure a good price for it. When, therefore, the government placed an internal revenue, or excise tax, on whisky, they resented it and refused to pay the tax. They drove away the officers sent to collect the tax and defied the government. President Washington decided to show once for all that the acts of the national government could not be defied at will. He called out the militia, and fifteen thousand

[1] Cincinnati received its name from the society formed by the officers of the Revolution at the close of that war. Cincinnatus was a Roman noble who was called from the plow to serve his country and returned to the plow after the danger was over. The formation of the society aroused great opposition, as many claimed it was a plan to establish hereditary titles here.

[2] On September 29, 1899, a statue was erected to Gallitzin's memory at Loretto, Pennsylvania.

troops were sent to the scene of the riots. As soon as the troops appeared the rioters laid down their arms. The lessons of this rebellion were valuable ones. The people everywhere saw that the acts of Congress must be obeyed and that the authority of the national government was supreme over state and citizen.

239. The Cotton Gin, 1793. In the year 1793 Eli Whitney of Massachusetts, a school teacher who was on a visit to the South, conceived the idea of a machine for separating cotton and its seeds. It was, up to this time, a day's work for a man to clean four pounds of cotton. Hence cotton cloth was very expensive. Whitney's gin from the first enabled a man to clean fifty pounds in one day, and later improvements greatly increased its capacity. As a result of this invention cotton growing, which had been unimportant, became at once one of the leading industries of the country, the exports reaching enormous figures within five years, especially to England, which had up to this time secured its cotton from the East and West Indies.[1] Immense cotton mills were erected in the North to weave cotton into cloth. This invention had an unexpected result, however.

ELI WHITNEY

[1] "In 1790," says Draper, "no cotton was exported from the United States. Whitney's cotton gin was introduced in 1793. The next year about one and a half millions of pounds were exported and in 1795 about five and a quarter millions; in 1860 the quantity had reached two thousand millions of pounds." To-day the production of cotton reaches the enormous amount of thirteen to sixteen million bales of five hundred pounds each. The invention of the gin came at the very time when rice and indigo had fallen to so low a price that they scarcely repaid the expense of cultivation.

Before the invention of the cotton gin it was generally believed both by the North and by the South that slavery would pass away, as it was not profitable. The cotton gin, however, made slave labor very profitable to the cotton planter

A COTTON FIELD

of the South. At the same time it enlisted the sympathy and active support of the Northern mill owners in maintaining the slave system, as they could thereby secure more and cheaper cotton.[1] The cotton gin, therefore, not only helped to fasten slavery on the country but prevented its peaceful abolition.

[1] The cotton industry received a wonderful impetus from some great English inventions of this period. John Kay invented the fly-shuttle, a machine to drive the shuttle to and fro. Hargreaves devised the spinning jenny, by which eight or ten strands of wool, cotton, or flax could be spun into thread at one time. Arkwright invented a machine for drawing out threads by rollers. Crompton combined the best features of the spinning jenny and roller machine into a new machine called the "mule." Cartwright invented a power loom for weaving. The looms were run by water power or horses. James Watt, by his improvement of the steam engine, revolutionized the industry when the looms were driven by steam power. These inventions led to the factory system, which replaced the method of manufacturing in the homes, which had been the custom up to that time. They made England at that time the greatest manufacturing nation of the world.

240. The First Cotton Mill, 1790. In 1790 Samuel Slater opened a mill in Pawtucket, Rhode Island. He had been employed in an English factory where the new spinning machinery was used. The British Parliament had forbidden anyone, under heavy penalties, to make for foreign countries or to send out of England any spinning machinery, or drawings or models of the machinery.

Slater came to America and from memory made the machinery. Slater's mill was the beginning of the wonderful cotton and woolen mills of our country that produce today hundreds of millions of dollars' worth of goods.

THE COTTON GIN

241. The French Revolution. In 1789 a revolution broke out in France. This revolution was caused partly by the revolution in America, but more largely by the unequal systems of taxation[1] then in use in France. The nobility and the wealthy classes practically escaped the payment of taxes, while the peasant farmers were weighed down by the fearful burden of taxation which they were compelled to bear.

Although France had in theory a representative assembly, it had not been called together in one hundred and seventy-five years. During this time the kings of France had ruled and taxed as they pleased. In 1789 the National Assembly was called together and demanded a new constitution. This began the revolution, which gradually carried all before it. The king, Louis XVI, and the queen, Marie Antoinette, were beheaded,

[1] This taxation was especially heavy because of the numerous wars in which France had been engaged for almost two hundred years.

and also hundreds of the leading nobles. Others fled for safety to foreign countries. The old laws were swept away, property was confiscated, and a reign of terror was begun.

In a short time the revolutionists turned on each other, and thousands were beheaded in the fearful civil war. The monarchs of Europe, taking alarm for their thrones, joined together to reëstablish royalty in France. War broke out between France and England in 1793, and soon Spain, Austria, Holland, and Prussia took up arms against France.

242. Citizen Genêt. As France had been our ally in the Revolution, most Americans were in sympathy with her in her plan to establish a republic and to overthrow royalty.

At this time Edmond C. Genêt[1] was sent as minister from the Republic of France to secure the coöperation of the United States against England and to detach the Floridas and Louisiana from Spain. Genêt arrived at Charleston, South Carolina, in 1793 and began to fit out privateers against English commerce. Washington believed the United States was not in a position to interfere in European quarrels, even if it wished to do so. He therefore issued a proclamation of neutrality, refusing to take part in the war on the side either of France or of England. This course enraged the Democratic-Republicans. Believing that France had been our steadfast friend, while England had frequently been hostile to us, they called meetings to express their sympathy with France. Arriving in Philadelphia, Genêt endeavored to stir up the people against the president. Genêt's recall was requested, and the French government complied.

243. Jay's Treaty, 1794. To make matters worse at this time, England continued to refuse to give up the Western posts held by her soldiers. She seized our seamen who were naturalized American citizens, as she maintained that no Englishman could change his nationality. She declared, also, that many British sailors were enlisted in our navy.

[1] Genêt (zhe nay'). As France had abolished all titles, they now used the term *citizen* in addressing each other.

THE UNITED STATES in 1792
The Mississippi was then the western boundary of the United States, but we had a claim on the Oregon country. (See above). England, Spain and Russia also claimed Oregon.
SCALE OF MILES
0 50 100 200 300 400 500
OREGON
1. By Discovery, 1792.
2. By Exploration, 1805-6.
3. By Settlement, 1811-
4. By Treaty with Spain, 1819.
5. By Treaty with Great Britain, 1846.
LOUISIANA
Ceded by France to Spain in 1762
France regained it in 1800
Purchased by the United States in 1803
SPANISH POSSESSIONS & CLAIMS
BRITISH POSSESSIONS
CANADA
NORTH WEST TERRITORY
SOUTH WEST TERRITORY
Line of 1818
Line of 1819
Missouri R.
Mississippi R.
Red R.
Arkansas R.
Ohio R.
Detroit
Vincennes
Cahokia
St. Louis
Kaskaskia
Marietta
Cincinnati
Pittsburg
KENTUCKY 1792
VIRGINIA
NORTH CAROLINA
SOUTH CAROLINA
GEORGIA
In dispute with the United States.
Claimed by Spain until 1795.
New Orleans
FLORIDA
Delivered to Spain
L. Superior
L. Michigan
L. Huron
L. Erie
L. Ontario
St. Lawrence R.
Connecticut R.
Hudson R.
VERMONT
NEW YORK
PENNSYLVANIA
MARYLAND
DELAWARE
NEW JERSEY
CONN.
MASSACHUSETTS
PACIFIC OCEAN
ATLANTIC OCEAN
GULF OF MEXICO
Longitude West 90° from Greenwich

He left the presidency to return to his beautiful home at Mount Vernon. On leaving the high office Washington could indeed look with pride on the advance of his country during the eight years of his administration. The Constitution was firmly established, the laws were well administered, the public credit was secure, the revenues were increasing daily, and we were extending our commerce on all sides.

On returning to private life Washington was hailed by all the people with the proudest title a patriot may enjoy, "The Father of his Country."

SUMMARY

The leading events of Washington's administrations were as follows:

Our government was begun in 1789 under the Constitution.

The payment of our debt, foreign and domestic, was provided for in 1790 and our national credit established at home and abroad.

A tariff law was passed (1789) with protective features.

An excise law placed internal revenue taxes on distilled liquors.

A national bank was established in 1791.

In the war between France and England Washington preserved the peace of the United States by a neutrality proclamation.

In 1789 the French Revolution broke out in France.

Genêt, a minister of the new French Republic, sought (1793) to enlist the United States on the side of France, but he was recalled.

The states of Vermont (1791), Kentucky (1792), and Tennessee (1796) were admitted to the Union.

The first ten amendments to the Constitution were adopted (1789).

The Whisky Rebellion of 1794 was quickly ended by Washington.

A treaty with England made in 1794 by John Jay was confirmed, except as to certain clauses, by the Senate. It caused widespread dissatisfaction in the country, but for a time it averted war.

By a treaty with Spain in 1795 we adjusted the northern boundary of Florida and secured the free navigation of the Mississippi.

In 1793 Eli Whitney invented the cotton gin, which revolutionized the cotton industry and fastened slavery on the country.

The first cotton mill in the United States was opened in 1790 at Pawtucket, Rhode Island.

John Adams's Administration, 1797–1801

246. Election of Adams. The Federalists nominated John Adams for president; the Democratic-Republicans chose Thomas Jefferson. Adams received seventy-one votes [1] and was elected president, while Jefferson had sixty-eight votes and was elected vice president.[2] On March 4, 1797, Adams was inaugurated.[3]

247. Trouble with France, 1797. X Y Z Papers, 1798. The Jay treaty had aroused the indignation of the French government, which sent its war vessels to capture our merchantmen. It also refused to receive our minister, Charles C. Pinckney, until the grievances of France had been redressed. To settle our difficulties, President Adams sent (1797) two special commissioners to join Pinckney, who was still in France.

The French government did not receive them, but three envoys from Talleyrand, Minister of Foreign Affairs, promised to stop these attacks on our shipping if the commissioners would give fifty thousand dollars to each of the five members of the French Directory, which was then the ruling power in France. The envoys also demanded that we assist France with a loan of money and disavow some expressions of President Adams towards the French government.

[1] As the Constitution then provided, the largest number of electoral votes elected the president and the next largest number of electoral votes elected the vice president. This provision has since been changed by the Twelfth Amendment.

[2] "While the election was still in doubt, Jefferson wrote to Madison authorizing him in case of a tie between himself and Adams to solicit votes for the latter, as he was the senior and had always preceded him in the march of public life." — Channing, "United States," Vol. IV, p. 173

[3] John Adams was born in Massachusetts in 1735. He was elected a member of the First and Second Continental Congresses and aided materially in the adoption of the Declaration of Independence by Congress. From the first he advocated separation from Great Britain. After our government was established, he worked with great perseverance and success to secure the good will of Europe towards our new republic and was appointed minister to Great Britain. He died July 4, 1826, with the words, "Thomas Jefferson still survives." But he was mistaken, for that illustrious statesman had passed away a few hours before.

This proposal was sent to Adams, who submitted it (March 5, 1798) to Congress. Instead of the names of Talleyrand's three agents, the letters X, Y, Z were used. Hence the documents were called the X Y Z papers.

This infamous proposal caused a burst of indignation throughout the land, and we were on the brink of war with France. The immortal words of Pinckney were on every lip, "Millions for defense, but not one cent for tribute."

248. Preparations for War. In his message to Congress Adams said, "I will never send another minister to France without assurance that he will be received, respected, and honored as the representative of a great, free, powerful, and independent nation." The treaties with France were suspended; a provisional army was raised, and Washington was made commander in chief. A navy department was created, and our vessels, fitted out for war, sailed to the French West Indies to destroy French commerce. The *Constellation*, under Commodore Truxtun, captured the French frigate *Insurgente*. In the following two and a half years the Americans captured eighty-four French vessels. So vigorous a warfare did our little navy wage that the French Directory requested us to send another commission. Adams, anxious to avoid war, sent the commission, which made a treaty in 1800 with Napoleon, who had replaced the Directory in the control of France.

249. Alien and Sedition Laws, 1798. The Federalists, aided by the excitement of the times and by the feeling against France, passed the so-called Alien and Sedition Laws. By the Alien Law the president had the power for two years to expel any foreigner from the country. This law was never in fact enforced, but many French refugees fled from the country.[1]

[1] In 1798 the Eleventh Amendment was added to the Constitution. A citizen of South Carolina had brought a suit against Georgia (*Chisholm* against *Georgia*) for the payment of a debt. The United States Supreme Court asserted its right to hear the suit and entered judgment against the state of Georgia. The Eleventh Amendment was promptly passed, and a state cannot now be sued by a citizen of another state.

The Sedition Law provided that any person, native or foreign, who unlawfully opposed any measure of the government or abused the president, Congress, or any member of the national government could be fined and imprisoned. This act was to be in force for three years. A few persons were fined and imprisoned under it.

250. Action of Virginia and Kentucky, 1798. The Democratic-Republicans strongly denounced these acts.[1] Jefferson wrote a series of resolutions which were adopted by the legislature of Kentucky. Madison did the same for the legislature of Virginia. These resolutions were the first actual declaration of "state rights." They protested that the Alien and Sedition Laws were unconstitutional and that it was the duty of the states to interpose. In an additional Kentucky resolution of 1799 nullification[2] was declared to be the rightful remedy. This doctrine of nullification, held so generally both by the North and by the South, was destined later to bear fruit and eventually to end in the Civil War.

251. Death of Washington. The New Capital. On December 14, 1799, George Washington died, after a brief illness, at his home at Mount Vernon. The entire nation was bowed with grief at the death of him who had been "first in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his countrymen."

Napoleon ordered all the flags of France to be draped in black for ten days.

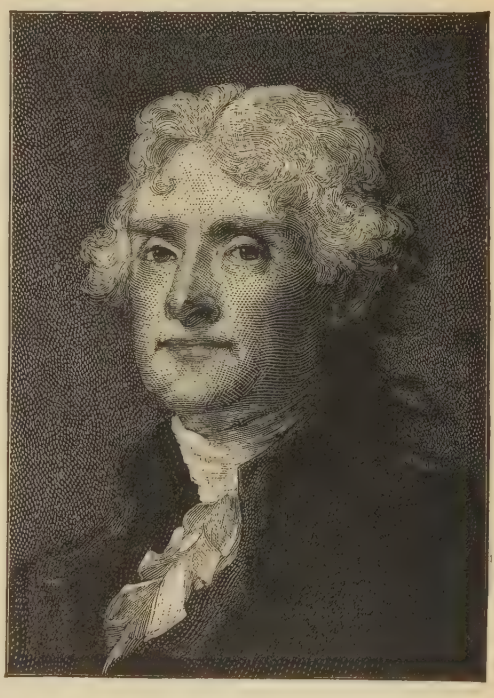
[1] The Democratic-Republicans maintained that the Alien Act violated the Bill of Rights, which guaranteed freedom of the person and a trial by jury. The Sedition Act, they declared, violated the right of freedom of speech and of the press as guaranteed by the First Amendment of the Constitution.

[2] The idea of the Kentucky resolution was, however, not the right of nullification by a *single state* but by a *convention of the states.*

The Virginia resolutions did not suggest nullification, but implied the right of a state to pass on the constitutionality of an act of Congress. The nullification idea was not by any means confined to the Southern states. A few years later (1808) the legislature of Massachusetts declared that the Embargo Act is "in many respects unjust, oppressive, and unconstitutional, and not legally binding upon the citizens of this state." The same ideas obtained in Pennsylvania in 1809 and in the Hartford Convention of 1814.

Jefferson's Administrations, 1801–1809

253. The Democratic-Republican Party. On entering the presidency Jefferson[1] showed a democratic spirit. On the morning of his inauguration he walked to the Capitol surrounded by a few friends instead of riding in a coach with six horses as had been the custom. He desired the cordial friendship of all the people. The dress of former days was largely changed; he himself discarded to a great extent the wigs, short breeches, silk stockings, and buckled shoes; his motto was, "A vote for every man, whether he owns property or not." He was in favor of freedom of speech and low taxes, and was a firm advocate of peace. He was opposed to the rapidly increasing power of the



THOMAS JEFFERSON

[1] Thomas Jefferson was born in Virginia, April 13, 1743. He studied law, was elected to the House of Burgesses of Virginia, and became a member of the Continental Congress. With brilliant intellectual gifts he quickly rose to a leading position in national affairs. He was the author of the Declaration of Independence and of our decimal system of coinage. During the Revolution he served as governor of Virginia. He drafted the Religious Toleration Law. He was elected president in 1800 and reëlected in 1804. From his Virginia home he was called the Sage of Monticello. He died July 4, 1826.

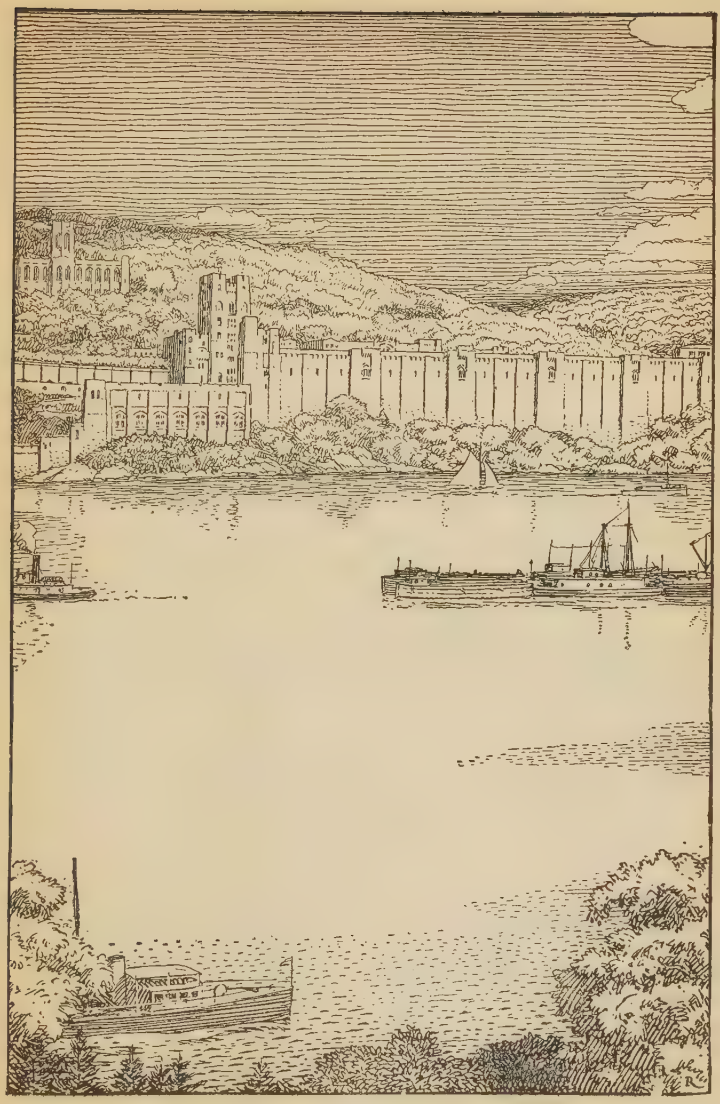
Federal Government. Jefferson represented the new ideas of the times and was deservedly popular.

The Democratic Republicans began many reforms. They cut down the army and the navy and began to pay off the national debt, which was reduced one third in eight years, besides paying for Louisiana and the war with the Barbary pirates. They repealed many objectionable laws and conducted the government on lines of the strictest economy, the entire expense being less than four million dollars a year.

254. War on the African Pirates. For many years the Barbary States on the north coast of Africa — Morocco, Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli — had made a trade of piracy. Practically all the nations of Europe paid them immense sums of money to leave their vessels alone. These pirates had given us a great deal of trouble by capturing our shipping and imprisoning our sailors. We had paid them a million dollars in tribute to allow our vessels to sail the Mediterranean, but they constantly demanded more, until in 1801 the ruler of Tripoli declared war against us. In 1803 a fleet was sent against these pirates. So vigorously did our brave sailors wage the war that the ruler of Tripoli asked for peace with us in 1805.

255. Ohio admitted, 1802. West Point. The Northwest Territory in 1800 had been divided into the territory of Ohio and the territory of Indiana. In 1802 the territory of Ohio was admitted to the Union, being the first state formed from the Northwest Territory. Ohio had at this time only forty-five thousand inhabitants. To the settlement around Fort Washington was given the name of Cincinnati. As the boats multiplied on the Ohio River, Cincinnati became the leading city on this river.

To secure officers for the army the national government decided to found a military school. The beautiful site of West Point, New York, at a spot where it overlooks the Highlands of the Hudson River, was selected, and the United States Military Academy was founded there in 1802.



WEST POINT

256. The Louisiana Purchase, 1803. The greatest event of Jefferson's administration was the purchase of Louisiana, the vast territory extending from the Mississippi River to the Rocky Mountains and from the Gulf of Mexico to British America.

In 1763 Spain received this territory from France as a reward for her aid in the war with England. Spain held it for thirty-seven years and in 1800, by a secret treaty, ceded it back to France.

The West relied upon the Mississippi to carry its products to the sea, and one fourth of all our products passed down that great waterway in flatboats from Kentucky, Ohio, and Tennessee. Even with a weak power like Spain in possession of New Orleans, there was danger, as was seen when the Spanish governor of New Orleans refused, in 1802, to allow us any longer the right of deposit there. This cut off our Western products from the world's markets and aroused the entire West. Even at this time the Western settlers hoped to see the United States occupy the territory beyond the Mississippi. What Jefferson especially feared was the establishment of a strong power like France at the mouth of the Mississippi. Speaking of New Orleans, he said, "There is one spot the possessor of which is our natural and habitual enemy."[1] Jefferson sent an envoy to France to buy New Orleans and that part of Louisiana east of the Mississippi.[2] As a matter of fact Napoleon had already planned the reëstablishment of an American colonial domain for France; but, having failed in recovering control of

[1] Jefferson had grave doubts as to his right under the Constitution to buy territory. He took advantage, however, of his doubts and was sustained by the country. The Federalists opposed the purchase, as they feared the West would in the future put them in a minority. Josiah Quincy of Massachusetts advised the secession of New England and New York if Louisiana was admitted to the Union.

[2] In 1803 Chief Justice Marshall rendered the first of a series of decisions that have profoundly affected our national life. In that year the Supreme Court decided, in the case of *Marbury* against *Madison*, that the Supreme Court could set aside an act of Congress if that act, in the opinion of a majority of the justices of that Court, conflicted with the Constitution.

the French colony of Saint Dominique,[1] where the slaves had revolted, he lost his interest in this colonial project and sold Louisiana to the United States for fifteen million dollars.[2] The acquisition of Louisiana doubled our national domain. Napoleon said, on signing the treaty, "This accession of territory establishes forever the power of the United States and gives to England a maritime rival destined to humble her pride."

THE LEWIS AND CLARK EXPEDITION AT THE SUMMIT OF THE ROCKIES

257. The Exploration of Lewis and Clark, 1804–1806. As nothing was actually known of this vast territory, Jefferson sent an expedition under Meriwether Lewis and William Clark to explore it. Leaving St. Louis (May 14, 1804) with forty-five picked and trained men, they pushed their three boats up the Missouri halfway to its headwaters, to the village of the Mandan Indians near the site of the present city of Bismarck, North Dakota. Here they decided to go into winter quarters for five months. Along the route they had secured plenty of food, as there was an abundance of

[1] Now Haiti. The leader of the revolt, which began in 1795, was Toussaint L'Ouverture. Read Wendell Phillips's celebrated oration on this daring leader.

[2] From this territory have since been formed the states of Louisiana, Arkansas, Missouri, Kansas, Iowa, Nebraska, North Dakota, South Dakota, Oklahoma, a large part of the states of Minnesota and Colorado, and parts of Wyoming and Montana.

deer, wild turkeys, elk, buffalo, geese, and fish. In the spring (April, 1805) they resumed their journey up the river and after twenty days reached the Yellowstone.

Late in May they saw the snowy peaks of the Rocky Mountains on the distant horizon.[1] After endless toils they crossed the mountains[2] and embarked on the Columbia. They reached the mouth of the Columbia (November, 1805) after a journey of four thousand miles and saw the Pacific stretching before them. On their return to St. Louis (September 23, 1806) they published an account of their wonderful journey. In the entire two years, notwithstanding the hardships and dangers, only one man had died.

258. Russia on the Pacific. In 1725 Peter the Great gave a commission to a Dane named Vitus Bering to cross Siberia and explore the north Pacific. During the next sixteen years Bering was engaged in this work. He discovered the strait that now bears his name and explored the shores of Alaska and the coast of the present British Columbia. Bering's explorations led to great Russian activity in the hunt for the valuable sea otter that swarmed in these waters. The Russians pushed down the Pacific coast, founding Sitka in 1800.[3] A post was built on Bodega Bay in 1813, where they came in touch with the Spanish missions of California. A few miles northward they built a fort (1820) which they named Fort Ross. The Russians now claimed all of the Pacific coast north of the Spanish territory for their flag.

[1] The French fur trader La Verendrye and his sons had seen the Big Horn chain of the Rocky Mountains seventy-five years before Lewis and Clark.

[2] The expedition was greatly aided by an Indian squaw, Sacajawea, a Snake Indian of the upper Columbia country, who had married and was living among the Mandans. She accompanied the expedition westward until it arrived among her own people. A statue to her memory has been erected in Portland, Oregon.

[3] It was an early belief that a Greek navigator, Juan de Fuca, sailed under the flag of Spain and discovered in 1592 the strait that now bears his name. In 1775 Haceta, a Spaniard, discovered the mouth of the Columbia, but was unable to enter it because of contrary winds, the strong outflowing torrent of water, and an outbreak of scurvy which killed many of the crew.

259. The English Pacific Exploration. In the meantime the English laid claim to the north Pacific coast through the voyage of Drake in 1579. In 1776 James Cook was sent on a voyage of exploration. He passed along the coast of Alaska, around the Aleutian Islands, through Bering Strait to the Arctic Ocean. He returned to the Hawaiian Islands, where he was killed by the natives.

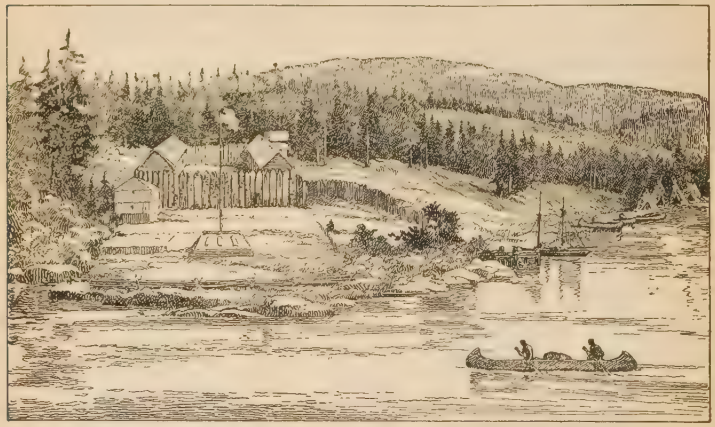
In 1792 an English commander, George Vancouver, explored Puget Sound and claimed the surrounding country for Great Britain. He had sailed past the mouth of the Columbia River, but had failed to notice it.

260. American Exploration. To secure some of the profits of the fur trade and fisheries, Boston merchants sent out vessels into the north Pacific. Captain Robert Gray, sailing on one of these vessels, the *Columbia*, discovered (May 11, 1792) the mouth of the Columbia and gave to it the name of his vessel. Gray claimed

RUSSIAN EXPLORATION AND SETTLEMENT IN THE NORTHWEST

all the country drained by its waters for the United States. This gave us our first title to Oregon. The expedition of Lewis and Clark gave us a second title.

The report of this expedition stirred up the fur traders, and John Jacob Astor founded the Pacific Fur Company, with a line of trading posts extending from the Missouri to the Columbia. Near the mouth of the latter river, in 1811, Astoria,



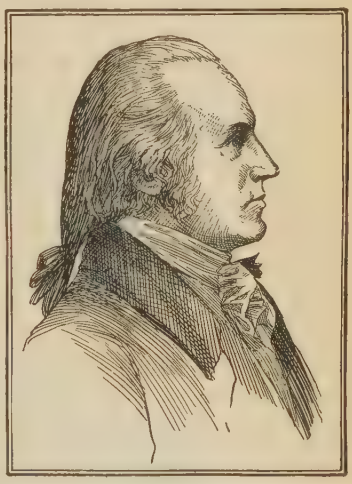
ASTORIA

the first United States colony on the Pacific, was founded. This was a third title to the Oregon country.[1]

261. Death of Hamilton. Aaron Burr. The whole country was shocked at this time to hear that the vice president, Aaron Burr, had killed Alexander Hamilton in a duel (July 11, 1804). Burr's political career was at an end. George Clinton had been elected (1804) vice president and took Burr's place when Jefferson was inaugurated for his second term. Burr went West and formed plans, the meaning of which are

[1] Other expeditions were under way at this time. Lieutenant Zebulon M. Pike was sent northward along the Mississippi in 1805 to find its headwaters. In 1806 he was ordered to explore the country of the great West. He discovered Pikes Peak.

not exactly known. It was claimed he hoped to establish a new nation, of which he would be the head. This nation would be made up of the Mississippi Valley country with Louisiana. Burr expected, it was thought, to add Mexico to his domain, as he hoped to wrest that country from its Spanish rulers. Burr induced General James Wilkinson, who commanded the United States army at New Orleans, to join his scheme, but Wilkinson revealed the plot to Jefferson. On his way to New Orleans, Burr was arrested for treason and taken to Richmond, where he was tried. He was not convicted, and after a residence of some years in Europe he returned to New York City, where he died in obscurity in 1836.



AARON BURR

262. War between France and England. Right of Search. War broke out once more[1] between France and England in May, 1803, and all Europe except Turkey was in arms. In 1806 England declared a blockade of the northwestern coast of France. Napoleon answered by the Berlin and Milan decrees,[2] which forbade the ships of any neutral nation to enter British ports. England followed at once with decrees, called "Orders in Council," which forbade neutral vessels to enter the ports of France or of any nation in league with France. As the United States was the leading neutral commercial country, this action exposed our shipping to capture by both nations.

[1] France had declared war on England February 1, 1793. This war continued under Napoleon until the Peace of Amiens in 1802. In 1803 war was resumed and continued until the defeat of Napoleon in 1815 at Waterloo.

[2] They were so called from the cities from which they were issued.

England went still further. Relying on her large navy, she maintained the right to stop and search American vessels and to take from them any sailors she decided to be Englishmen. Her outrages reached their climax when the British frigate *Leopard* fired (June 27, 1807) upon the American frigate *Chesapeake* and killed and wounded twenty men. The *Chesapeake*, being unprepared for action, surrendered, and the English took off four seamen, one of whom they hanged as a deserter.[1]

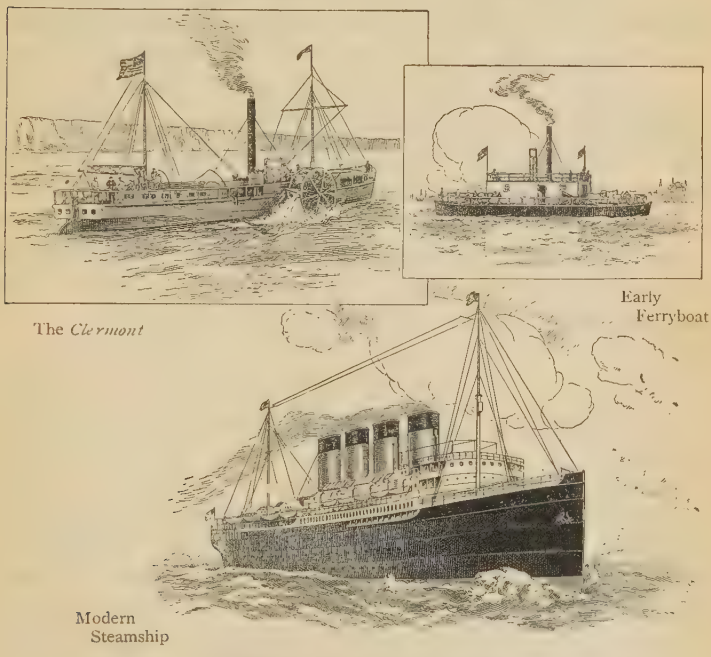
263. The Embargo Act, 1807. The Non-Intercourse Act, 1809. Congress now passed an act forbidding American vessels to leave our shores for foreign ports.[2] This was called an embargo and was passed to stop trade with England and France. It was thought this would cause great distress in Europe and would compel England and France to respect our rights. It may be recalled that a similar measure had been effective in bringing England to repeal the Stamp Act. This time, however, the embargo was not successful. If it injured British commerce, it injured our own much more. It caused great suffering and was highly unpopular in the Eastern states. The opposition to the embargo in New England was so great that prominent men in that section began to discuss secession from the Union. The law was repealed in 1809. The Non-Intercourse Act was now passed. By this act all commerce with Great Britain and France and their colonies was illegal. Commerce was permitted, however, with all countries not under the control of France and England. There was at once an active and very profitable trade opened with Spain and Portugal.

An important result of these acts was to turn the attention of American merchants from commerce to manufacturing, a change destined to bring about wonderful results.

[1] So great was the popular indignation at this outrage that Jefferson declared, "Never since the battle of Lexington have I seen this country in such a state of exasperation as at present."

[2] Under the Enforcement Act of 1808, coasting vessels, before they were allowed to leave harbor, were required to give a bond of six times the value of ship and cargo that their cargoes would be landed in a United States port.

264. Moving Vessels by Steam. Fulton's *Clermont*, 1807. As early as 1785 John Fitch had built a steamboat in Philadelphia. Ten years later he operated in New York City a steamboat with a screw propeller. In the spring of 1807 the *Clermont*, a



PROGRESS OF STEAM NAVIGATION

paddle-wheel steamer of twenty tons, designed by Robert Fulton, was launched on the Hudson at New York. It was one hundred and thirty-three feet long and eighteen feet wide. It made a successful trip to Albany, one hundred and fifty miles, in thirty-two hours, — the first long voyage ever made by a steamboat.[1]

[1] The legislature of New York granted to Fulton and Livingston a monopoly on all the waters of the state of New York for boats moved by steam or fire. The monopoly was overthrown by the Supreme Court (*Gibbons* against *Ogden*) in 1824. This decision laid the basis of the law of interstate commerce.

This wonderful feat opened the way for steam navigation on our lakes and rivers. Four years later a boat was built at Pittsburgh to run on the Ohio and the Mississippi, and in 1818 another was speeding over the waters of the Great Lakes.[1]

265. Importation of Slaves forbidden, 1808. Election of Madison. The Constitution denied Congress the power to prohibit the importation of slaves before 1808. President Jefferson,[2] in a message to Congress, recommended the passage of a law prohibiting the importation of slaves. This law was enacted in 1808. Only five dissenting votes were recorded in the Senate. Thus the first step toward abolishing slavery was taken.[3]

Although the legislatures of eight states invited Jefferson to accept the presidency for the third term, he refused, and James Madison was easily elected fourth president of the United States. George Clinton was elected vice president.

SUMMARY

The leading events of Jefferson's administrations (1801–1809) were as follows:

Louisiana was purchased from France in 1803.

The expedition of Lewis and Clark explored (1804–1806) the Louisiana territory and the great West to the Pacific Ocean.

The pirates of northern Africa were punished and repressed (1803–1805).

[1] In 1819 the Atlantic Ocean was first crossed by a steamship, the *Savannah*. This vessel was three hundred and eighty tons burden and was in reality a sailing vessel with an auxiliary engine. She crossed from Savannah, Georgia, to Liverpool in twenty-five days. She used steam only eighty hours in all, depending upon her sails for the remainder of the voyage. She was chased by an English revenue cutter off the coast of Ireland for a day and a half, as the captain of the cutter thought the *Savannah* was on fire.

[2] Jefferson believed in the gradual abolition of slavery. In 1821 he wrote, "Nothing is more certainly written in the book of fate than that these people are to be free."

[3] In 1809 the first newspaper in the Northwest appeared when *The Michigan Essay or Impartial Observer* was published at Detroit by the Reverend Gabriel Richard, who had earlier kept his people in touch with world affairs by having a crier announce the news each Sunday at the church doors. In 1823 Father Richard represented Michigan as territorial delegate in Congress.

In 1807 the *Clermont*, designed by Robert Fulton, sailed to Albany.

The Embargo (1807) and Non-Intercourse (1809) acts were passed.

The importation of slaves was forbidden in 1808.

People to know about:

Hamilton, Jefferson, Bishop Carroll, Boone, Wayne, Whitney, Slater, Genêt, Adams, Marshall, Fulton.

Map work:

Study on the map the location of Washington, the West Indies, Algiers, Morocco, Tunis, Tripoli, Columbia River, Yellowstone River, Sitka, Fort Ross.

Draw a map of the Northwest Territory.

Draw a map of the Louisiana Purchase.

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REVIEW EXAMINATION

1. What were the principal features of the Alien and Sedition Laws? In whose administration were they passed?

2. Give an account of the explorations of Lewis and Clark, and state two important results of their expedition.

3. What troubles with France arose in the administration of John Adams? How were the troubles finally settled?

4. State the principal features of Hamilton's plan for establishing and maintaining the financial credit of the United States.

5. Mention the political parties that resulted from the adoption of the Constitution, and show how these parties differed in regard to one important principle.

6. In whose administration was Louisiana purchased by the United States? Give an account of the purchase.

7. Tell briefly about the following: (*a*) the Jay Treaty of 1795; (*b*) the X Y Z papers; (*c*) the treaty with Spain in 1795; (*d*) the plans of Burr in the West and South.

8. What was the Whisky Rebellion? How did Washington treat it? What principle of our government was at stake?

9. What great invention was made in Washington's first administration? What was its effect?

10. "Thus within a year and a half Hamilton had secured, in the face of the opposition of the state-rights party, the passage of four great measures, — assumption, funding of the debt, the excise, and the bank charter, — all tending to the centralization of power." Show how each of Hamilton's measures tended to centralize power.

James Madison's Administrations,[1] 1809–1817

266. Trouble with Great Britain and France. The English maintained the principle, "Once an Englishman, always an Englishman." The United States maintained the principle, then novel but now generally accepted, that a man may change his allegiance and become a citizen of another country. To recruit her navy, therefore, England sent war ships up and down our coast, overhauling our vessels and taking off seamen whom she claimed to be her subjects. Most of these were probably English born, although frequently they were native American citizens. In eight years almost six thousand sailors had been taken from our vessels, and no less than nine hundred vessels had been searched.

Great Britain and France were still at war with each other, and the Non-Intercourse Act forbade trade with either of them. Soon after Madison's inauguration the British minister in Washington declared that Great Britain would withdraw her Orders in Council. The Non-Intercourse Act was thereupon suspended. At once hundreds of vessels loaded with goods sailed to sea. The British government, however, did not approve of the acts of her minister, and when the vessels arrived with their valuable cargoes they were not allowed to land. The Non-Intercourse Act therefore again went into effect. In 1810 Congress declared that if either France or Great Britain would revoke the decrees against our shipping, the Non-Intercourse Act would be put in force against the country that would not revoke; Napoleon announced immediately that he would recall the decrees, and Great Britain promised to do the

[1] James Madison was born in Virginia in 1751. He was admitted to the bar and later was elected a member of the Continental Congress and of the Constitutional Convention. Madison's state papers are among the ablest productions of American statesmanship. The first draft of the Constitution and the first ten amendments embodied his ideas, and hence he has been called "the Father of the Constitution." He was Secretary of State for eight years under Jefferson. He was elected president in 1808 and was reëlected in 1812. He died in 1836.

same after Napoleon had acted. Neither France nor England did as they had promised, however, and our difficulties with France and Great Britain increased daily.

267. The *President* and the *Little Belt*. Battle of Tippecanoe. Declaration of War. In May, 1811, the English cruiser *Guerrière*[1] stopped an American vessel near New York Harbor and took off an American sailor. The frigate *President* was sent at once in search of the *Guerrière*, but met instead the small British twenty-two-gun ship *Little Belt*. The *President* at once opened fire and easily captured the British vessel.

THE BATTLE OF TIPPECANOE

In the meantime the Indians in the Northwest, incited by the English, had taken to the warpath against the American settlers, who were advancing in large numbers into the Indian hunting grounds.

The Shawnee chief, Tecumseh, had united many of the tribes in a strong confederacy and had ravaged the frontiers. It was believed the British were furnishing them with arms and supplies. General Harrison, the governor of Indiana Territory, was sent against them. While Tecumseh was absent in the South the Indians attempted to overwhelm Harrison by a sudden attack, but he defeated them (November 7, 1811) at Tippecanoe in western Indiana. Tecumseh later joined the English army in Canada.

Affairs had now reached the point where war was inevitable, and on June 18, 1812, hostilities were declared against Great Britain.[2]

[1] *Guerrière* (ghĕ ree air′) means "warrior." It had been captured from the French, which accounts for its name.

[2] In 1811 the charter of the First Bank of the United States was about to expire. It had been very successful, but there was great opposition to it on the part of the Democratic-Republicans and of the state banks. Henry Clay opposed the renewal of the charter. The attempt to renew the charter failed in Congress, and the affairs of the bank were wound up. At once numerous state banks sprang up. As soon as the War of 1812 began they failed, leaving the country in a desperate financial plight.

268. Causes of the War. The chief causes of the war were:

1. Impressment of American sailors and search of American ships.

2. Violation of our rights of commerce by seizing American cargoes and refusing to recognize the principle that neutral ships make neutral goods.

3. Blockade of our ports by English vessels.

4. Incitation of the Indians to attack our frontier settlements, and furnishing arms to them.

The rallying cry of the war was "Free Trade and Sailors' Rights."[1] This meant freedom for our merchant ships to go to any ports they wished and protection of our seamen from seizure by the British.

The Americans were poorly prepared to enter the war. The American army numbered less than seven thousand men, mostly untrained, to oppose the well-disciplined English forces many times larger. Our small navy was opposed to the largest navy in the world. Even the country was not united, as New England vigorously opposed the war. England, however, at this time was in a life-and-death struggle with Napoleon and could release only a part of her forces for use in America.

269. Hull's Surrender. Battle of Queenstown Heights, October 13, 1812. The objective point in the campaign was the capture of Canada, which, it was thought, could be easily accomplished.[2] Three armies were raised for this purpose: the first, under Hull, was to march from Detroit; the second,

[1] In Congress many young men appeared at this time who were destined to direct our national affairs for many years. Among them were Henry Clay, of Kentucky, who soon became speaker of the House of Representatives, and John C. Calhoun, of South Carolina. They were so anxious for war that they were called "War Hawks." Daniel Webster, of New Hampshire and later of Massachusetts, appeared in Congress at this time.

[2] It was thought the Canadians would throw off their allegiance to England and join the United States. In this our statesmen were sorely disappointed. So easy was the conquest of Canada deemed to be that Henry Clay declared in the House of Representatives that he believed "the militia of Kentucky are alone competent to place Montreal and Upper Canada at your feet."

under Van Rensselaer, was to cross the Niagara River and take Queenstown; the third, under Dearborn, was to go up the valley of Lake Champlain and, uniting with the other two, capture Montreal and Quebec. The whole plan was a signal failure. General Hull set out with two thousand men from central Ohio on his arduous march through the unbroken forests to Detroit. When he reached there he learned that Mackinaw had fallen into the hands of the British.

THE WAR IN THE EAST

He entrenched at Fort Detroit, but he was at once besieged by the British under General Brock and by the Indians under their chief Tecumseh. Hull was summoned to surrender.

Anxious, as he declared, to save the women and children from the scalping knives of the Indians, he did so without firing a gun.[1] Thus not only Detroit but all of Michigan Territory passed to the British. Fort Dearborn, on the site of the present city of Chicago, fell at the same time.

The second army, under General Van Rensselaer, crossed the Niagara River, and attacking the British at Queenstown Heights (October 13, 1812), drove them from their position. The American general, however, failed to receive reënforcements because the New York militia refused to leave that state, and his army was surrounded and captured.

[1] Hull was tried for cowardice by court-martial and sentenced to be shot, but the President pardoned him for his distinguished services during the War of the Revolution.

General Dearborn started up the Hudson valley and through Lake Champlain to the Canadian border. The defeat of Hull and Van Rensselaer entirely destroyed the plan of the attack on Montreal, and Dearborn and his army returned.

270. The War on the Sea. The *Constitution* and the *Guerrière*. Other Naval Battles. Though the army had completely failed in its plan to invade Canada, our little navy upheld gloriously the flag of the republic. In 1812 we had only seventeen seagoing

THE *CONSTITUTION* (*OLD IRONSIDES*)

vessels, carrying four hundred and forty-two guns and about five thousand men. England, "the mistress of the seas," at the same time had ten hundred and forty-eight ships, carrying twenty-seven thousand eight hundred guns and one hundred and fifty thousand men. On the American coast alone England had one hundred and seven ships.

Despite such odds, our brave sailors went forth to strive for victory. On August 19, 1812, the *Constitution*, under Captain Hull, nephew of General Hull, captured the *Guerrière*. From that time the *Constitution* was known as *Old Ironsides*.

During this year the British frigate *Macedonian* was captured by the *United States*, and the *Frolic* was captured by the *Wasp*.

While the war was in progress President Madison was renominated by the Democratic-Republicans and elected.

271. The *Chesapeake* and the *Shannon*. The Privateers. The British ship *Shannon* fought (June 1, 1813) the American frigate *Chesapeake* outside Boston Harbor and captured her. Captain Lawrence fell; his dying words were, "Don't give up the ship."

Privateers were commissioned by the President to prey on English commerce. In seven months over three hundred British vessels were captured by them, and during the war over seventeen hundred ships were taken.

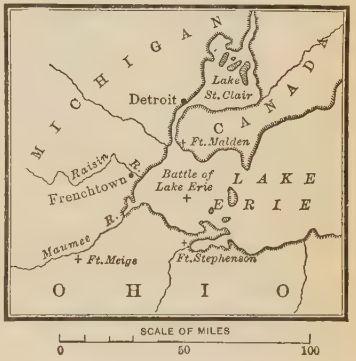
OLIVER HAZARD PERRY

272. Raisin River Massacre, 1813. Fort Meigs. In the new plans for the invasion of Canada the army was organized in three divisions. It was intended that the first should retake Michigan Territory; the second, the Niagara district; the third, the Lake Champlain valley. All three divisions were then to invade Canada. General Harrison, in charge of the western division, moved northward towards Detroit. A part of his forces, under Winchester, was defeated (January 22, 1813) on the Raisin River (near the present site of the city of Monroe, Michigan) by the British and Indians. The British general, Proctor, did not adequately protect the American prisoners from the Indians, and many were massacred. Only forty were saved from the battle. Henceforth the war cry of the Americans was, "Remember the River Raisin."

In the spring of 1813 Proctor, with the aid of Tecumseh, besieged General Harrison at Fort Meigs on the Maumee River. Two attacks were made without success; thereupon the British turned and attacked Fort Stephenson on the lower Sandusky. The attack was an utter failure, and the enemy

retreated. Michigan, however, was still in the hands of the British. These reverses led the Indians to lose faith in British prowess, and many promptly deserted.

273. Battle of Lake Erie, 1813. The navy, which had won so many victories at sea, now achieved a most signal triumph on Lake Erie. It was seen that it would be necessary to control the Great Lakes before any expedition into Canada could be successful. On September 10, 1813, Commodore Oliver Hazard Perry, with nine vessels, many of them built on the lake shore, attacked the British fleet, which was made up of six vessels larger than Perry's and having greater gun power. The battle was a complete defeat for the British. Perry sent to General Harrison this message: "We have met the enemy and they are ours: two ships, two brigs, one schooner, and one sloop." As we now controlled Lake Erie, the British were compelled to abandon Detroit, and the territory surrendered by Hull was recovered.



THE WAR IN THE NORTHWEST

274. Battle with the Creek Indians. Harrison's Victory on the Thames. The Creek Indians in the South now went on the warpath. They had been aroused by Tecumseh and supplied with arms by British agents. Fort Mimms, forty miles from Mobile, was attacked (August 30, 1813) and all its occupants, two hundred and fifty men, women, and children, massacred. With troops from Georgia, Mississippi, and Tennessee, General Andrew Jackson marched against the Indians. He attacked them (March 29, 1814) at Horseshoe Bend, or Tohopeka, on a branch of the Alabama River. The Indians were completely defeated and their power broken. Many fled into Spanish territory, and the United States took

possession of a large portion of their lands under a treaty which Jackson compelled them to make (August 9, 1814).

In the meantime General Harrison took advantage of Perry's victory to invade Canada. On the banks of the Thames (October 5, 1813) he routed the English forces under Proctor and Tecumseh. By these victories of Perry and Harrison we controlled Lake Erie, Michigan, and Upper Canada. Ohio was freed from the danger of invasion, and the Indian confederacy was destroyed.

THE WAR IN THE SOUTHWEST

275. Battle of Lake Champlain, September 11, 1814. The American army under General Brown crossed the Niagara River, captured Fort Erie, and defeated the English at Chippewa (July 5, 1814). Three weeks later the Americans attacked the strong position of the British at Lundy's Lane (July 25) within sound of Niagara Falls and won a partial victory. The British now planned an expedition down Lake Champlain, following the route taken by Burgoyne thirty-seven years before. Sir George Prevost, with a land force of eleven thousand men, marched southward to Plattsburg, while a naval force of seventeen vessels sailed down the lake to support him. The British fleet met (September 11, 1814) the American squadron of fourteen vessels under Commodore Macdonough.

The fight lasted two and one-half hours, when the whole British fleet surrendered. In the meantime the British land forces met General McComb, who had taken a position with two thousand men on the bank of the Saranac River. The British tried in vain to cross, the fire of the Americans sweeping their ranks at every point. At last, hearing of the disaster

to the fleet, they retreated in such haste that the sick and wounded, as well as large military stores, were left in the hands of the Americans.

276. Burning of Washington, 1814. The overthrow of Napoleon allowed the British to send thousands of well-trained troops to America. In retaliation for a raid into Canada, during which the Parliament buildings at York (or Toronto) were destroyed, Vice Admiral Cochrane gave orders to lay waste the coast towns. As a result of this order the British turned their attention to Chesapeake Bay. Landing their forces, the British, under General Ross, marched without difficulty against the capital of the nation.

THE WAR IN THE SOUTH

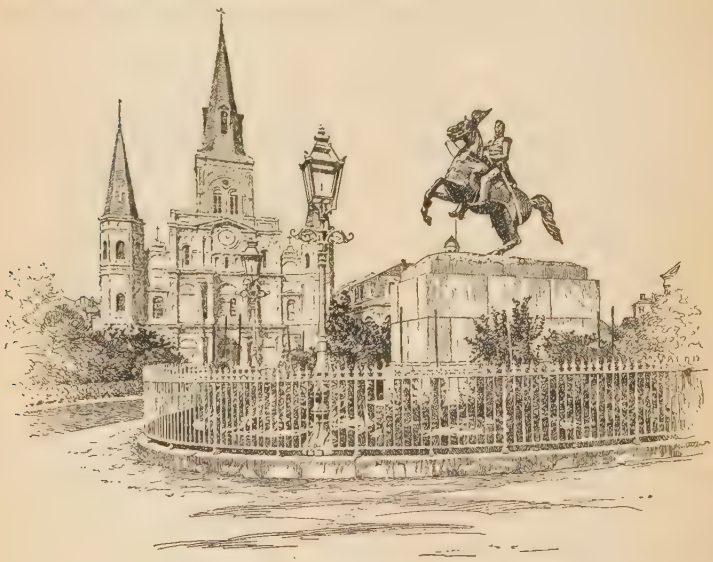
On August 24, 1814, General Ross entered Washington and burned the Capitol and other public buildings. He next marched to Baltimore, while his fleet sailed up the bay and bombarded Fort McHenry, which guarded the approaches to that city. For twenty-five hours shot and shell rained on the fort in vain. At the end of the bombardment "the flag was still there."[1] The land forces attacked the city, but were repulsed. Ross was killed and the British retreated.

277. Battle of New Orleans, January 8, 1815. The English now gathered a large force under Sir Edward Pakenham to attack New Orleans and secure control of the Mississippi. The British hoped to win the aid of the French and Spanish

[1] Francis Scott Key was detained that night on one of the British ships, whither he had gone to secure the release of some prisoners. By the flash of the guns, while watching eagerly the flag still flying over Fort McHenry, he wrote our national hymn, "The Star-Spangled Banner."

inhabitants of this section, as these inhabitants were not kindly disposed to American rule. By controlling the Mississippi the British hoped to secure in the treaty of peace the entire Louisiana country for themselves.

General Andrew Jackson marched to meet them. Besides a fleet of fifty vessels the English had twelve thousand trained



JACKSON SQUARE, NEW ORLEANS

soldiers, many of them having fought against Napoleon. Jackson had six thousand men behind breastworks, mostly undisciplined troops but superb marksmen. The British advanced (January 8, 1815), but were completely defeated with a loss of twenty-six hundred men. The American loss in killed and wounded was only seventy-one.

278. The Treaty of Peace. The treaty of peace between Great Britain and the United States had been signed at Ghent, in Belgium (December 24, 1814), but the news of this action did not reach the United States until after the battle of New

Orleans, as the telegraph did not exist at this time and the news was brought in sailing vessels. In the peace treaty nothing was said about the matters that caused the war. The impressment of our sailors, neutral rights, or blockades were not mentioned, and England did not bind herself to give up the right of search. Our naval victories, however, had rendered that proceeding so dangerous that for the future our ships were not molested. Other questions, such as boundaries and the ending of the Indian Wars, were referred to arbitration.

279. Results of the War of 1812. While the war cost two hundred millions of dollars and the lives of thirty thousand men, it produced beneficial results.

Europe learned that we were well able to take care of ourselves, and our ships and sailors could hereafter cross the seas in peace. Another effect of the war was the development of manufactures. The war tariff, the embargo, the non-intercourse laws, and the high price of freights had turned the capitalists from commerce to manufactures, which had increased to a wonderful extent, especially in cotton goods.[1] In 1814 Francis C. Lowell established at Waltham, Massachusetts, a cotton mill, where for the first time all the processes of spinning, weaving, and finishing were carried on under one roof. Other large factories were built at Lowell, Lawrence, and Fall River. To protect these industries from English competition at the close of the war, a duty of twenty-five per cent was laid on cotton and woolen goods imported from abroad, and the protective system was thereby established.[2]

During the war the necessity for better communication by means of good roads and canals between the sections of the

[1] There were only four cotton factories in the United States in 1803. In 1815 there were no less than five hundred thousand spindles in operation, while the consumption of cotton had risen from five hundred bales in 1800 to ninety thousand bales in 1815.

[2] This was the tariff of 1816, practically the first of our purely protective tariffs. It was bitterly opposed by Daniel Webster, who felt that it imperiled the commercial interests of New England.

country was plainly seen. This need led to a renewed demand for "internal improvements," with money to be raised from increased tariff rates, and further developed the growing protective system.

The War of 1812 has been called the Second War of Independence. We were at last becoming independent of Europe not only in political ideas and theories but also in our industrial life.

Since the termination of the War of 1812 over a century has elapsed, during which time the United States and England have been at peace. Along the entire boundary line of Canada and the United States, a distance of three thousand miles, not a fort exists, nor has there been an armed squadron on the Great Lakes. This is in striking contrast to conditions in Europe, where the boundaries of practically all the countries bristle with fortresses, manned day and night, year after year, by armed men. This condition has virtually turned Europe into a military camp.

280. The Hartford Convention, 1814. While the war was in progress it had been violently opposed by many of the New England Federalists. Massachusetts and Connecticut had withdrawn their militia from the national service at the moment of the nation's greatest peril. The Federalists obstructed the loan of money to the national treasury, and the English troops and ships received large supplies from the New England states. Under the influence of the Federalist leaders the legislature of Massachusetts invited the states of New England to send delegates to a convention. Twenty-seven delegates met at Hartford, December 15, 1814.

The meetings were secret; and it was believed that the delegates were plotting a disruption of the Union, for the convention resolved it was the right and duty of a state under certain circumstances to nullify an act of Congress. The convention also suggested amendments to the Constitution, designed to diminish the influence of the South in national

politics and to make the suspension of foreign commerce or the declaration of war by Congress more difficult.[1]

The bitterest feeling was aroused throughout the country against the Federalists. Nothing resulted from the convention, as peace soon followed, but it brought about the ruin of the Federalist party.

281. Admission of Louisiana, Indiana, and Mississippi. In 1812 the southern part of the Louisiana Purchase, which was called the Territory of Orleans, was admitted to the Union as the state of Louisiana. It was the first state made from the vast tract purchased from France.

In 1805 Michigan Territory was formed from the northern part of Indiana Territory. Four years later Illinois Territory was formed from the western part. These cessions reduced Indiana Territory to its present limits, and it was admitted as a state in 1816. In the following year Mississippi was added as a state to the Union. Settlements which were destined to become great cities now began to be made. In 1818 Solomon Juneau founded Milwaukee on the west shore of Lake Michigan.

SUMMARY

The leading events of Madison's administrations (1809–1817) were as follows:

The second war with Great Britain began in 1812 and ended in 1815. It was caused mainly by the impressment of our seamen and by the violation of our rights of commerce as neutrals. Our national hymn, "The Star-Spangled Banner," was written during this war.

The Hartford Convention of 1814 aroused great indignation in the nation and brought about the downfall of the Federalist party.

Louisiana (1812), Indiana (1816), and Mississippi (1817) were admitted to the Union.

[1] Other amendments were proposed to require a two-thirds vote of both Houses of Congress to admit a new state, or to interdict foreign commerce. Other amendments were designed to prevent a second term for a president, to prohibit the election of successive presidents from the same state, and to forbid naturalized citizens to hold any office under the government.

James Monroe's Administrations,[1] 1817–1825

282. Era of Good Feeling. James Monroe, the fifth president, ushered in the "era of good feeling." The country was believed to be entering on a period of peace and prosperity. Roads were built, canals were dug, the great fields of the West began to attract numerous settlers. In 1817 Monroe visited New England and many of the Northern states. His journey was a triumphal progress and was of the greatest benefit in breaking down sectional lines and uniting the country.

JAMES MONROE

283. The Cession of Florida, 1819. At this time Spain still had possession of Florida. There were very few settlements, and the Indians, runaway slaves, and outlaws who roamed through the land caused endless trouble for the neighboring states. In 1817 Andrew Jackson took command of the forces of the United States. Acting with his usual vigor, he seized a number of Spanish forts and towns, executed two British traders who were accused of furnishing arms to the Indians, and in three months had the country virtually under his control. His actions

[1] James Monroe was born in Virginia in 1758. He was a member of the Congress of the Confederation, senator, Minister to France, Great Britain, and Spain, twice governor of Virginia, and Secretary of State. Nominated in 1816 by the Democratic-Republicans for president, he was elected, and was reëlected in 1820. He died in 1831.

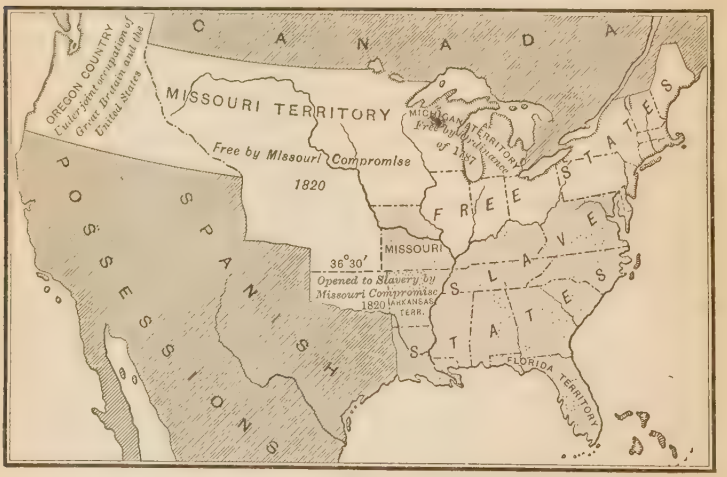
threatened to bring on war with Spain and England. Fortunately Spain was induced in 1819 to sign a treaty with the United States. By this treaty Spain (1) ceded Florida to us and thereby adjusted our southern boundary, (2) arranged for drawing the boundary line between the United States and Mexico from the Gulf of Mexico to the Pacific Ocean, and (3) agreed to the payment by the United States of the claims held by American citizens against Spain to the amount of five million dollars. Sixty thousand square miles were added to our domain by the Florida Cession.[1] While these stirring events were taking place in the Southeast, the great westward migration was going on, aided by better roads and bridges and by the steamboats on the Ohio River. As a result the territory of Illinois increased its population to fifty thousand, and in 1818 it was admitted as a state to the Union.

284. The Question of Slavery. Slavery existed in all the thirteen colonies which belonged to Great Britain. At the adoption of the Constitution in 1787 slavery did not exist in Massachusetts (which included Maine), New Hampshire, and Vermont. Later, however, it was gradually abolished in all the Northern states. By the Ordinance of 1787 slavery was prohibited in the Northwest Territory, and in consequence the states of Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, which had been formed from the Northwest Territory, were admitted as free states. During this time Kentucky, Tennessee, Alabama, Mississippi, and Louisiana had been admitted as slave states. In 1820, therefore, there were in the Union eleven slave states and eleven free states, giving to each section exactly the same power in the national Senate.[2] In the House of Representatives,

[1] At this time all the Spanish-American colonies were in revolt against the flag of Spain. Spain was unable to conquer these colonies, and from this time the Spanish colonies of Central and South America became one by one independent republics.

[2] In 1821 the American Colonization Society carried out its project of founding in Africa a colony made up largely of free negroes from the United States. This colony is the present Republic of Liberia.

however, the free states, because of their rapidly increasing population, were obtaining the mastery, having at this time ninety-eight members to eighty-one for the slave states. In population the North now outnumbered the South by more than half a million. The slave states, therefore, resolved to hold their power in the Senate by refusing to admit a free state unless a slave state was admitted at the same time.

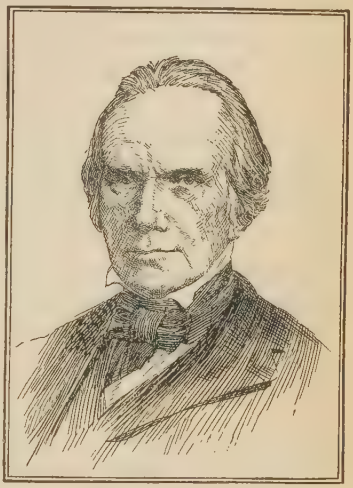


THE MISSOURI COMPROMISE OF 1820

Up to this period the new states, except Louisiana, had been established in territory entirely east of the Mississippi. The large emigration, however, had now crossed that river, and the settlers, who were mostly from the South and favored slavery, asked the admission of this new section as the state of Missouri.

285. The Missouri Compromise, 1820. This request brought on a crisis. Should Missouri be admitted as a free or slave state? Upon the decision of that question practically depended the fate of slavery and freedom in the entire Louisiana Purchase. Other questions were involved in this problem. The South, in raising tobacco, cotton, and rice, felt the necessity of

slavery to secure cheap labor. It also desired to buy its goods where they cost least; in other words, they desired free trade with Europe. The North, in consequence of the War of 1812, had given up the carrying trade by sea to some extent, had established manufactories, and desired a tariff placed on foreign goods. This would largely prevent their importation and would build up home industries.



HENRY CLAY

There was thus a conflict of interests between the North and the South. In the North, too, gradual emancipation was rapidly bringing about the extinction of slavery, and the disposition to prevent its introduction into new territory was growing. Most of Missouri is north of the lower Ohio River, which was the boundary between the slave and free states. As the prohibition of slavery in Missouri would give the free states a majority in the Senate and would be a discrimination against the right to hold slaves, the South vigorously opposed any such restriction. At this critical point a compromise was proposed by Senator Thomas of Illinois and pushed through by the great ability of Henry Clay.[1] It was suggested that Missouri should be admitted as a slave state and Maine[2] as a free state,

[1] Henry Clay was born in Virginia in 1777. He was very poor and was called "the Mill Boy of the Slashes," the "Slashes" being the low swampy lands near the South Anna River in Virginia. He moved to Kentucky and was at various times senator and representative. He was Secretary of State under President John Quincy Adams. He was called "the Great Pacificator." He was nominated for the presidency in 1824, in 1832, and in 1844, but was defeated each time. He died in 1852.

[2] Maine had been a part of Massachusetts since 1691. With the consent of the latter state she now applied for admission to the Union.

thus maintaining the equality of power in the Senate; also that slavery should be prohibited forever in all the rest of the Louisiana Purchase (or Missouri Territory, as this area was now called) north of 36° 30′ except the proposed state of Missouri. This plan, known as the "Missouri Compromise," was finally accepted (1820), and the question of slavery was to a great extent settled for nearly twenty-five years.

286. The Holy Alliance. Spain had lost as the result of revolutions her continental colonies in the New World.[1] They had become independent republics. In 1815, after the overthrow of Napoleon, the sovereigns of Russia, Prussia, France, and Austria formed a union, called the Holy Alliance, to uphold "religion, peace, and justice." In 1822 this was supplemented by a secret treaty, by which they agreed to act together to put an end to representative institutions in Europe, to suppress the liberty of the press, and to reëstablish everywhere reactionary and despotic governments. In 1823 they intervened to restore absolute rule in Spain and planned to recover the revolted colonies for the Spanish king. It is believed that France expected to secure Mexico and that Russia had plans on foot to seize California. We had at this very period a question to settle with Russia on the Pacific seaboard, for she claimed that coast from Bering Sea to the fifty-first parallel.[2] If her claims were good we were in danger of being shut out entirely from the Pacific coast, as Mexico extended to the forty-second parallel and England claimed Oregon, which at that time included all the area from the Mexican boundary of 42° to the Russian boundary on the North.

[1] Mexico, Colombia, Buenos Ayres (later Argentina), Peru, Chile, and Venezuela were the colonies that had successfully rebelled and were acknowledged as independent republics by the United States in 1822.

[2] This parallel is about two hundred miles north of the northern boundary of the United States. Two years previous to this time the Czar of Russia had forbidden foreign navigators to come within one hundred miles of the Pacific coast north of 51°.

287. The Monroe Doctrine. At this juncture President Monroe declared, in his message to Congress in 1823, "that the American continents, by the free and independent condition which they have assumed and maintain, are henceforth not to be considered as subjects for future colonization by any European powers." This was aimed at Russia, which, as we have seen, had designs on California. It was also directed at France, which, it was feared, was planning to secure control of Mexico.

President Monroe further declared that as the United States did not propose to meddle with European affairs, he expected that the Holy Alliance would not meddle with American affairs. He therefore boldly said to the Holy Alliance: "We owe it, therefore, to candor and to the amicable relations existing between the United States and those powers to declare that we should consider any attempt on their part to extend their system to any portion of this hemisphere as dangerous to our peace and safety," and that any hostile interference with the South American republics would not be regarded "in any other light than as the manifestation of an unfriendly disposition toward the United States."

This message, reënforced by the opposition of England to intervention in South America, produced the desired effect, and the republics of Mexico and of South America were allowed to work out their own destiny. "The era of European colonization in the New World had passed away." In the following year Russia made a treaty with us, abandoning all her claims to the Pacific coast south of 54° 40′, which is the southern limit of Alaska. The United States agreed to make no settlements north of that line.

288. Reëlection of Monroe. Visit of Lafayette. At the end of his first term President Monroe was reëlected without opposition, receiving the electoral vote of every state.

In 1824 Lafayette arrived as the guest of the nation, to visit again after an absence of forty years the land for which

he had fought so valiantly. He was received everywhere with the cordiality his bravery and generosity merited. At Bunker Hill, exactly fifty years after the battle, he laid the corner stone of the monument which marks that glorious height. Congress voted him two hundred thousand dollars and twenty-four thousand acres of land in Florida to repay him for the

SCENE ON THE NATIONAL ROAD

money he had expended in the American Revolution. He visited Mount Vernon to pay his affectionate respects to the memory of his beloved friend Washington.

289. Emigration to the West. The National Road. The West was now attracting the attention of the nation, and over the mountains poured a stream of settlers. Steamboats began to ply on the large rivers. Towns were built on the banks, and forests cleared away for farms and plantations. This movement was aided by the influx of settlers from Europe. In the desire to render easier the communication between the East and the West, a highway was begun by the national government in 1811 at Fort Cumberland on the Potomac River. This great highway was called the Cumberland, or

National, Road. The road was about eighty feet wide, paved with stone and covered with gravel. It was marked every quarter of a mile. The road reached Wheeling in 1820 and was later (1836) built as far as Vandalia in Illinois, when its further construction ceased with the greater public interest in railways. Along this road passed an endless stream of pack-horses and of wagons with settlers seeking the fertile fields of the West. On reaching the Ohio River many sailed down in steamboats or flatboats to find new homes in the river valleys.

THE CUMBERLAND, OR NATIONAL, ROAD

SUMMARY

The leading events of Monroe's administrations (1817–1825) were as follows:

Florida was purchased from Spain in 1819.

The slavery debate, which opened with great vigor, was settled for a long time by the Missouri Compromise of 1820.

In 1823 the Monroe Doctrine was proclaimed.

The northwestern boundary dispute with Russia was adjusted.

The visit of Lafayette occurred in 1824, when he was received with joy by all the nation.

At this time began a great emigration to the West, aided by the building of the National Road, which reached Wheeling in 1820.

Dates to be remembered:

1812. The second war with England.
1819. The purchase of Florida.
1820. The Missouri Compromise.
1823. The Monroe Doctrine.

Important dates for reference:

1814. Peace treaty with Great Britain.
1815. Battle of New Orleans.
1816. First protective tariff act.
1819. First steamship crosses the Atlantic.

Map work:

Study on the map the location of Detroit, Lake Champlain, Niagara River, Raisin River, Sandusky, Chesapeake Bay, Washington, New Orleans.

Study carefully the result of the compromise of 1820, tracing the free and slave territory and the area opened to freedom.

REVIEW EXAMINATION

1. "The War of 1812 has been often and truly called the second war of independence." Explain the meaning of this statement and give three concrete results of the war.

2. Write a brief biography of two of the following: Alexander Hamilton, Lafayette, Robert Fulton, Thomas Jefferson.

3. What is the Monroe Doctrine? Under what circumstances was it proclaimed?

4. Give an account of the acquisition of territory during Monroe's administration, showing (*a*) the circumstances and events that led to it; (*b*) the three chief conditions of the treaty.

5. Give an account of each of the following: (*a*) the causes of the second war with England; (*b*) the burning of Washington.

6. State the objections raised by the Northern states against the admission of Missouri into the Union. How and in what year was the matter compromised?

7. Show how the United States was affected by the War of 1812 as to (*a*) standing among nations; (*b*) domestic relations; (*c*) new industries; (*d*) commerce; (*e*) improvement of internal communications.

8. Mention the first five presidents of the United States and connect an important event with the administration of each.

9. Trace the history of Louisiana from the earliest times to its admission to the Union.

10. Relate the circumstances that led to the following famous utterances: "Millions for defense, but not one cent for tribute." "We have met the enemy and they are ours."

John Quincy Adams's Administration, 1825–1829

290. The Election of Adams. At the close of Monroe's administration Adams, Jackson, Crawford, and Clay were the candidates for the presidency. All were members of the Democratic-Republican party. In the election no one had the required majority of the electoral votes,[1] and the House of Representatives elected John Quincy Adams.[2] John C. Calhoun had been elected vice president with practically no opposition.[3]

291. The Tariff Question. The question of the tariff became one of the leading problems of Adams's administration. The advocates of protection believed that the tariff should be placed so high that foreign goods could not compete with domestic manufactures. This, they claimed, would keep our mills and factories running at full speed, would maintain a high rate of wages, and would make the country prosperous and independent of foreign markets.

In opposition to this view were those who believed in "free trade" — that one should be allowed to buy his goods where he could get them cheapest. Another class believed in a "tariff

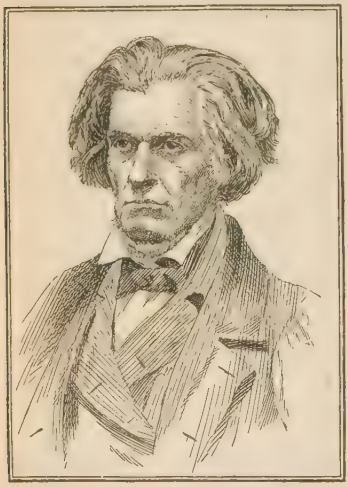
[1] Jackson received ninety-nine votes, Adams eighty-four, Crawford forty-one, and Clay thirty-seven. As the House of Representatives, voting by states, was compelled under the Constitution (Twelfth Amendment) to choose from the three highest candidates, Clay could not be voted for. He used his great influence as Speaker of the House of Representatives, however, for Adams, who was elected.

[2] John Quincy Adams, the son of President John Adams, was born in Massachusetts in 1767. He served the country abroad as minister to Holland, Germany, Russia, and England. He was senator and served as Secretary of State under Monroe (1817). He was elected president in 1824 and was defeated for reëlection. After his presidential term had expired Adams was elected as an independent to the House of Representatives, where he was an earnest defender of the right of petition and a strenuous opponent of slavery and secret societies, earning the title of "Old Man Eloquent."

He was stricken in his seat with apoplexy and died February 23, 1848. His last words were: "This is the last of earth. I am content."

[3] With the exception of Washington and John Adams, candidates for the presidency up to 1824 were nominated by a caucus of congressmen. From 1824 to 1832 the legislatures of many of the states made nominations. The national convention system began in 1832 and has since been followed by all parties.

for revenue only" — that a tariff should be levied only to raise money to carry on the government and should not have for its principal object the protection of any industry. In 1816 a protective tariff had been passed to protect from foreign competition coarse cotton and woolen goods. This was in reality the first of the tariffs that were levied for protection instead of for revenue. Two years later (1818) another tariff act placed heavy protective duties on iron and iron manufactures. The great struggle was begun between the friends and opponents of protection that continues until the present day.[1]



JOHN C. CALHOUN

In 1824 a still higher tariff was levied. Henry Clay was an earnest advocate of high protection, which he called the American System. The South, however, was gradually changing its earlier ideas and was now opposed to a protective tariff, while the North was strongly in favor of it. The South, being an agricultural section with no factories, believed that the high tariff diminished foreign trade, thus cutting down the market for cotton in Europe, and that it also compelled them to pay higher prices for the goods they bought; the North maintained that a protective tariff established a home market where cotton would bring a higher price. Believing the tariff of 1824 did not give them sufficient

[1] In 1816, while John C. Calhoun favored a protective tariff to encourage domestic industry, Daniel Webster opposed the tariff as hostile to the shipping interests of his state of Massachusetts. Webster also opposed the tariff act of 1824. He declared freedom of trade to be the general principle and restriction the exception. In 1828 the positions of these statesmen were exactly reversed, Webster advocating protection and Calhoun opposing it.

protection, a bill was introduced by the high-tariff advocates, raising still higher the duties on imported goods. This has been called the Tariff of Abominations, — "a result," says Professor Sumner, "of the scramble of selfish, special interests." This bill was passed, nevertheless, in 1828, and was signed by President Adams.[1]

292. The Erie Canal. Steam Railroads. The year 1825 witnessed the opening of the Erie Canal by De Witt Clinton,

EARLY TRAVEL ON THE ERIE CANAL

governor of New York. This canal was begun July 4, 1817, and its successful completion was due to the energy and determination of Clinton, who despite ridicule and discouragements kept to the work. The canal, three hundred and sixty-three miles in length, extended from Albany to Buffalo. It was a stupendous undertaking. It traversed forests, crossed rivers, and by means of locks overcame the differences of level of six

[1] John C. Calhoun now laid down in a document called "Exposition and Protest" the doctrine that this tariff was unconstitutional and that a state could nullify it. It asked for a convention of the state of South Carolina to settle the question, and it was suggested that a confederation of the states of the South might well be considered. This movement, if carried on, was ominous for the perpetuation of the Union.

hundred feet; it revolutionized the carrying trade,[1] reducing the price of transportation of a ton of goods between Albany and Buffalo from one hundred and twenty to fourteen dollars.

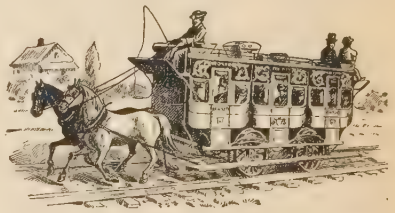
STAGECOACH

The canal cost seven and a quarter million dollars, but the tolls paid the entire expense in nine years.

The canal allowed the West to get at a much lower price the goods they so sorely needed, such as plows, axes, clothing, and medicine. New York merchants could now sell goods to the distant West as cheaply as they had sold them to Buffalo.

The vast fertile tracts that were of little value because of their distance from markets became at once attractive to settlers, and they flocked in from all sides. The building of the canal built up the cities of Buffalo, Rochester, and Syracuse, and made New York City, which had been second in population and third in commerce, the first city in the country and its leading seaport.

293. The Pennsylvania Canal System. To prevent New York from securing all the traffic to the West, Pennsylvania built a system of canals and roads from Philadelphia westward. From Philadelphia to Columbia there was a horse railroad, from Columbia to Hollidaysburg a canal. The section over the Allegheny Mountains from Hollidaysburg was made up of a portage railway. By this peculiar railway a boat placed on wheeled cars was hauled up by a series of inclined planes and levels across the mountains to Johnstown on the opposite side of the



EARLY TRAMWAY

[1] At the opening of the canal a boat carried a load of thirty tons. The new Barge Canal, which was opened in 1918, accommodates large lake barges.

range.[1] Hence the boat could travel by canal to Pittsburgh. Using the Ohio and Mississippi rivers it could go on to St. Louis and New Orleans.

In the states of Ohio and Indiana, canals were built to connect the Great Lakes with the Ohio River. The Chesapeake

OPENING THE FIRST RAILWAY

and Ohio Canal was planned to connect the Potomac with the Ohio, but it was never finished beyond Cumberland.

294. The Steam Railroad. At this time a rival for the canals appeared in the steam railway.[2] With great enterprise Baltimore took up the railway idea, and Charles Carroll of Carrollton[3] turned (July 4, 1828) the first spadeful of earth

[1] The state built the railway and the canal, and each individual furnished his own horses to draw the cars, paying the state merely for the use of the railway and canal. Later steam and horses were both used at the same time, but the horses, being slower, had to give way, and finally only steam was used.

[2] The first steam engine was designed by George Stephenson of England.

[3] Charles Carroll remarked on this occasion: "I consider this among the most important acts of my life, second only to that of signing the Declaration of Independence, if second to that." The Baltimore and Ohio was extended to Cumberland in 1835 and reached the Ohio River at Wheeling in 1853.

of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, the first passenger railway in the United States.

The first steam locomotive built in America was designed by Peter Cooper in 1830, sixteen years after Stephenson had invented the steam engine in England. The steam locomotive produced a wonderful change, as the train was now longer and could go much faster than with horses. Every year saw new developments.

Railroads were soon built from Albany to Schenectady in the Mohawk valley and from Charleston to Hamburg in South Carolina. Many states gave aid in building railroads. The Western Railroad (which later became the Boston and Albany), the Boston and Providence, and the New York and Lake Erie were all opened at this time.

MODERN RAILROAD

At the end of 1830 the extent of railways in operation was twenty-three miles; in 1840 it had risen to two thousand eight hundred and eighteen miles. In 1853 the first railroad from the East reached Chicago. At the present time we have about two hundred and sixty thousand miles of operated railway.

In 1828 Andrew Jackson was elected by the Democratic-Republicans, or the Democrats as that party was hereafter named, easily defeating President John Quincy Adams, who was a candidate for reëlection.

SUMMARY

The leading events of John Quincy Adams's administration were:

The tariff discussion of 1827 and 1828.

The opening of the Erie Canal in 1825 and the general movement for canals in many of the states of the Union.

The building, in 1828, of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad — the first regular passenger railway in America.

Andrew Jackson's Administration, 1829–1837

295. Jackson's Strong Personality. The election of Andrew Jackson[1] showed a marked change in the political thought of the country and foreshadowed the leading part which the young and growing West was destined to play in national affairs.

Unlike his predecessors, Jackson had had no early advantages. From Washington to John Quincy Adams the presidents had been well educated, while many of them had ample fortunes. Jackson's early education had been brief; his success had been obtained only by the most strenuous efforts. His triumph at New Orleans, his victories in the Seminole War, and his rugged, sterling, honest character had endeared him to the people. They felt he had come from among themselves. He was especially beloved throughout the South and the new West, and in his case a Western man was for the first time elected president.

ANDREW JACKSON

296. Removals from Office. Jackson began his administration by removing many officeholders. To turn out his foes

[1] Andrew Jackson was born of Irish descent, March 15, 1767, on the border of North and South Carolina. His early life was spent in the direst poverty. At the age of thirteen he was in the army fighting Great Britain. He studied law and later moved to Tennessee. In 1796 he was elected to Congress. He soon resigned and was appointed a judge of the Supreme Court of his adopted state. In the War of 1812 he became famous throughout the land by his victory at New Orleans and later (1818) by his campaign in Florida against the Indians. "Old Hickory," as he was called, reached the presidency in 1828, and was reëlected in 1832. He died June 8, 1845, at his home "The Hermitage," near Nashville.

and reward his friends seemed to him a laudable action, and he removed about two thousand persons during the first year of his presidency.

Rewarding the friends of a party by turning out its opponents is called the spoils system[1] from a speech in the United States Senate by Senator Marcy of New York, in 1832, in which he declared that he could "see nothing wrong in the rule, that to the victor belong the spoils of the enemy." The spoils system was the policy of our government until the Pendleton Civil Service Law of 1883 made a slight beginning in establishing the merit system.

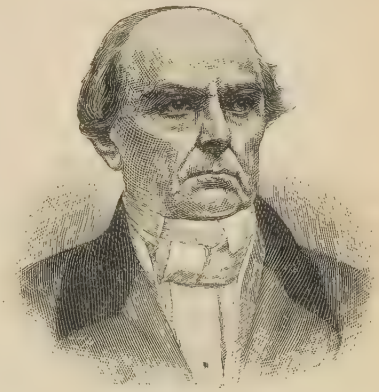
297. Nullification. The Webster and Hayne Debate, 1830. The tariff acts of 1824 and 1828 aroused the South and brought to the front, through John C. Calhoun[2] and other South Carolinians, the idea of nullification, or the right of a state to declare null and void any act of the Federal Congress which was believed to be unconstitutional. In 1830 Senator Robert Y. Hayne of South Carolina ably proclaimed this doctrine in the United States Senate. He maintained that the Constitution was a compact, formed by sovereign states which could not only withdraw if they wished but could set aside a law of Congress. This was the so-called "compact" theory of our government. He was answered by Daniel Webster, who, in a masterly oration, upheld the Constitution and the Union, winning for himself the title of "Defender of the Constitution." Webster declared that the government was national and that states could not secede. He maintained that the Supreme

[1] Jackson did not originate the "spoils system," as it had been in use from the beginning of the Republic, but he greatly developed it. "The spoils system," says Channing, in "United States," Vol. IV, p. 50, "instead of being an invention of Jacksonian Democrats or Jeffersonian Republicans was an inheritance from the Federalist presidents and by them had been built up on colonial and English precedents."

[2] John C. Calhoun was born in South Carolina in 1782. He studied law and served many terms in Congress. He was also vice president and Secretary of State. From his advocacy of state rights and nullification he was called "the Great Nullifier." He was the stanchest upholder of slavery. He died in 1850.

Court of the United States alone had power to set aside as unconstitutional a law of Congress. This doctrine was called the "national" theory. The Civil War, as we shall see, finally settled the question in favor of the national theory.

In 1832 a state convention was called in South Carolina. This convention declared the tariff acts of Congress to be null and void unless Congress gave relief. It also prohibited the payment of the duties and threatened to secede if force were used to collect them. Calhoun resigned the vice presidency and was elected to the Senate in 1833 to oppose Webster's doctrines.



DANIEL WEBSTER

President Jackson acted promptly and decidedly. "The laws of the United States must be executed," he said in a proclamation to South Carolina; and at once General Scott was sent to Charleston, and Lieutenant Farragut with a naval force to Charleston Harbor, while the collector was ordered to collect the duties.

Henry Clay, desirous of maintaining peace, suggested a compromise in 1833. He proposed a gradual lowering of the tariff of 1832[1] for ten years, until the duty should be as low as it had been in the tariff of 1816, — twenty per cent of the value of all imported goods. This compromise became a law in 1833, and South Carolina, having secured a lower tariff, as it had desired, at once repealed its Ordinance of Nullification.

[1] This act modified the tariffs of 1828 and 1830 and brought the duties back to the rates of 1824.

298. The Abolition Movement. In 1829 Benjamin Lundy began a movement for the entire emancipation of the slaves in all the states. In 1831 the *Liberator*, a weekly paper published by William Lloyd Garrison, appeared in Boston. The *Liberator* advocated the immediate abolition of slavery in all parts of the Union. Antislavery societies began to be organized [1] and increased rapidly.

The spread of the antislavery movement caused the greatest alarm not only in the South but also in the North, where the mercantile and manufacturing interests were opposed to political or social agitation that would exasperate the South or diminish its prosperous development.

299. Social Reforms. The abolition movement began at a time when there were arising loud demands for a reform in the method of administration of hospitals, jails, and asylums for the blind and insane. At this time imprisonment for debt was generally abolished and the modern cell system was introduced into prisons. The so-called Washingtonian societies led the movement for temperance in the use of liquor. This movement grew rapidly and was later greatly aided by the visit to America of the famous temperance advocate Father Theobald Matthew, who had accomplished wonderful results from his crusade in Ireland.

This general reform spirit no doubt aided the abolitionists in their crusade against slavery.

300. Nat Turner Rebellion, 1831. In 1831 an insurrection under a slave named Nat Turner broke out among the slaves of Virginia, during which sixty whites were murdered. The responsibility for this massacre was unjustly placed by the South

[1] These societies were aided by the fact that Great Britain, in 1833, had passed an emancipation act to free the negro slaves in her colonies in the West Indies at a cost of one hundred million dollars. After seven years English territory throughout the world would be free from slavery. The new Latin republics of Central and South America emancipated their slaves as soon as their independence was established. Slavery still existed at this time in Brazil under the Portuguese and in the colonies of Spain in the New World. France abolished slavery in her West Indian islands in 1848. Cuba began emancipation in 1870, and Brazil abolished the slave system in 1888.

THE SITE OF CHICAGO IN 1832

on the abolitionists. As the agitation continued and increased, popular indignation was more and more stirred, and in 1835 Garrison was dragged through the streets of Boston with a rope around his waist, and his life was barely saved.[1]

301. The Right of Petition. Petitions now began to pour into Congress asking for the abolition of slavery and the slave trade in the District of Columbia.[2] The Southern leaders asked Congress to refuse to receive such petitions, and after prolonged discussion the House of Representatives so voted in 1836. John Quincy Adams, after leaving the presidency, had been elected to the House of Representatives. He protested strongly, but in vain, that the right of petition was secured to any citizen by the first amendment to the Constitution. This action by the House of Representatives was called a "gag resolution" and was intended, it was claimed, solely to shut off all debate on the slavery question.

At this time the abolitionists began to send their publications in large numbers through the mails to the Southern states. The South asked the Federal government to refuse to forward such literature, as it was incendiary and tended to inflame the slaves to rebellion and violence. The postmaster-general ruled that he had no authority by law to exclude such matter from the mails, and on the other hand he would not instruct postmasters to forward or to deliver abolition documents.

[1] It was this sight which led Wendell Phillips into the ranks of the abolitionists. Whittier, Bryant, Emerson, and Longfellow aided the movement by poems against slavery. Many prominent men in the North opposed slavery, but felt Garrison went too far and therefore refused to join the movement.

Anti-abolitionist mobs destroyed the printing presses of the abolitionists in Philadelphia, Utica, Cincinnati, and Alton, Illinois. In the latter city Elijah Lovejoy was killed in the attack on his office. Many abolitionists dissenting from Garrison's policy of abstaining from political action decided to form a party called the Liberty party, and in 1840 they nominated for the presidency James G. Birney, who was born in Alabama but was a strong abolitionist.

[2] One of the petitions from Pennsylvania declared that the District of Columbia was "one of the greatest marts for the traffic in the persons of human beings in the known world notwithstanding the principles of the Constitution declare that all men have an unalienable right to the blessing of liberty."

The opponents of slavery thereupon claimed that two sacred rights under the Constitution were attacked, — the right of petition and the freedom of the press. Antislavery ideas spread more rapidly than ever; new abolition societies were formed throughout the Northern states, and the North and South drew ever nearer to the final struggle between freedom and slavery.

302. The National Bank Question. The first bank of the United States had been organized by Hamilton in 1791 and had been granted a charter for twenty years. In 1811, when the charter expired, Congress refused to renew it. State banks at once sprang up on all sides. In the crisis of the War of 1812 many of these state banks failed, and a charter for a second bank of the United States was granted at the suggestion of President Madison. This charter was to run for twenty years. The bank was located at Philadelphia and with its twenty-five branches in many cities transacted the financial business of the government.

303. Jackson and the Second Bank of the United States. President Jackson was at first friendly to the bank, but he came later to believe with many of the people, especially in the West, that the bank was an un-American monopoly, unsafe, badly managed, and unconstitutional. He also believed it had taken an active part in politics in opposition to him. He was determined, therefore, to overthrow it. Although the bank's charter would not expire until 1836, the friends of the bank introduced and passed a bill in 1832 through both houses of Congress to renew the charter for another twenty years from 1836. President Jackson promptly vetoed it. The bank charter therefore became an active issue in the presidential election of 1832. In this campaign the friends of the bank, under Clay, opposed Jackson. Jackson defeated Clay and the bank was doomed.

304. Pet Banks. End of the Second Bank of the United States. In the following year the Secretary of the Treasury was ordered to remove the government deposits from the bank

and to distribute these deposits among the state banks, or "pet banks" as they were called because it was said the administration favored them. A bitter contest arose over this action, but President Jackson was successful and the second bank of the United States ceased to be a government bank.[1]

305. Jackson's Specie Circular, 1836. The opening up of the fertile lands of the West had caused great activity throughout that section. Hundreds of thousands of acres of land were purchased for farms and hundreds of towns were laid out. A wild speculation arose in lands, timber, and cotton. Much of the payment for the public lands, purchased from the Federal government, was made in paper bank notes of the state banks instead of in gold and silver. President Jackson feared that so much of this state bank money had been printed that it would soon be of little value. He therefore issued his famous Specie Circular order (July 11, 1836) in which he directed that only gold and silver would thereafter be accepted in payment of public lands. This created a panic among the speculators and in the crash that followed thousands were ruined. This was the beginning of the crisis of 1837, which came to a head in the next administration.

306. Jackson's Indian Policy. It was President Jackson's policy to secure the removal of all the Indians to the west of the Mississippi River by the purchase of their lands through treaties. In 1834 Congress passed a law creating the Indian Country, or Territory, which under the law included all the territory of the United States west of the Mississippi not included within Missouri, Louisiana, and Arkansas. The Cherokee, who owned valuable lands in Georgia, strongly resisted removal for a time but at last sold their property and joined the Creek, Choctaw, Chickasaw, and Seminole tribes in the Indian country of the West. In the Northwest most of

[1] The bank received a new charter from the state of Pennsylvania, but it failed in 1841.

SUMMARY

The leading events of Jackson's two administrations (1829–1837) were:

The removals from office and the further development of the spoils system.

The growth of the abolition movement and the bitter debates in Congress on the slavery question.

The Webster-Hayne debate on the Constitution in 1830.

The Nat Turner rebellion in Virginia in 1831.

The rise of the nullification question with South Carolina in 1832 and President Jackson's firm defense of the Union.

The overthrow, in 1832, of the second bank of the United States.

The establishment of Indian Territory in 1834 and the removal of the Indians to the West.

The beginning of the Black Hawk and Seminole wars of 1832.

The discussion in Congress of the right of petition.

The Jackson Specie Circular of 1836, which paved the way for the crisis of 1837.

Dates to be remembered:

1832. The nullification question with South Carolina.

Important dates for reference:

1833. The foundation of Chicago.
1836. The independence of Texas.

Martin Van Buren's Administration,[1] 1837–1841

309. The Era of Speculation. In the administration drawing to a close Van Buren had been vice president. He was Jackson's intimate friend and adviser, and it was through Jackson's influence that he was elected. A New Yorker by birth, he was the first Democrat from the North to be elected president.

[1] Martin Van Buren was born of Dutch ancestry in Kinderhook, New York, in 1782. He was an able lawyer and guided for many years the politics of the state of New York so skillfully that he was called "the Little Magician." He served as senator, governor of New York, Secretary of State, and vice president. He was elected president in 1836, defeating Harrison, but was defeated in 1840 by Harrison. He died in 1862.

The last years of Jackson's administration had witnessed an astonishing growth in the nation: the development of the great West and the wonderful industrial progress and prosperity of the country had aroused to a fever pitch the spirit of speculation, especially in government lands; towns were laid out on all sides, sometimes even in the wilderness; great enterprises were undertaken without regard to cost or reason, and the entire nation seemed to be rushing on in a mad race for wealth. The causes of this mania for speculation were twofold: the United States in 1835 had become free from debt,[1] and at the same time money above expenses to the amount of thirty-five million dollars was flowing into the national treasury through the customhouses and land offices from the large sale of public lands.[2] As the opponents of the administration believed that the deposit of the public money in the state, or "pet," banks might well be a source of more or less political corruption, they proposed a plan of distribution of the surplus to all the states.

310. Deposit of National Funds in State Banks. A compromise was, however, proposed by Calhoun by which the surplus, to the amount of twenty-eight million dollars, was "deposited," as it was called, with the several states. This really meant a gift of the money. The money was at this time in the "pet," or state, banks, and it was recalled from them. This request staggered the state banks, which in turn called in their loans. The money which was now deposited with

[1] The national debt of seventy-five million dollars was created in 1790 under Hamilton's plan for funding the foreign, national, and state debts. It rose to one hundred and twenty-seven million dollars in 1816 as a result of the War of 1812. It decreased until 1835, when it ceased to exist. After the Crisis of 1837 ten million dollars was voted by Congress to meet the needs of the government. This created the national debt anew which, largely increased, has remained to the present time.

[2] The administration did not feel that it could reduce the revenue from customs, as the tariff was being gradually reduced under the compromise of 1833, and no one wished to disturb that settlement and bring on sectional trouble again.

the states was used by them for education, for internal improvements, and in some cases as outright gifts to the voters. During these years the states had been borrowing immense sums of money from abroad and had been carrying on extensive enterprises such as canals, roads, and railroads. Relying on the increase of wealth to come from these improvements, they had recklessly contracted enormous debts.

311. The State Banks and Wildcat Money.[1] A second cause of this wild speculation was the ease with which money or loans with which to buy public lands were obtained from the state banks. We have seen that the second bank of the United States had failed to secure a renewal of its charter. This led to an increase in the number of banks established under charters from the states. Many of these new banks had little capital. It was in banks of this kind that the money formerly deposited in the Bank of the United States or its branches had been placed by President Jackson, as the national government had no vaults in which to keep it. Many of these state banks had at once issued large amounts of bank notes or promises to pay gold or silver when they really had neither gold nor silver. As the bank notes were used to pay for government land, President Jackson became alarmed and, as we have seen, demanded specie, or in other words gold or silver, in all purchases of public land. This stopped the speculation, and men tried to sell the lands for what they could get.

312. Crisis of 1837. As a result a widespread crisis ensued at the very outset of Van Buren's administration. Banks suspended everywhere; mills and factories were closed; and tens of thousands of workingmen were thrown out of employment. Many states and territories which had borrowed money from foreign countries were unable to pay their obligations. Seven

[1] A bank in Michigan issued notes with a picture on them of a wildcat, or panther. When this bank failed, its notes were called wildcat notes, and hence banks that were either insolvent or likely to become so were called wildcat banks, and their notes wildcat money.

of them failed to pay the interest to their foreign creditors, and one refused to pay either principal or interest. For many years afterward Europeans looked with disfavor on American securities.

313. The Independent Subtreasury Plan. To bring about a better state of financial affairs Van Buren favored a plan to establish a subtreasury for the money of the United States. Instead of depositing its money in state banks, the government

ST. LOUIS IN 1840

now proposed to keep its own deposits in its own vaults. To this end there was finally (1846) established the Independent Treasury of the United States, in the Treasury Building in Washington, with branches in various cities.

314. The Anti-rent Agitation in New York. Under the patroon system, as we have seen (sect. 70), vast estates came into the hands of a few families. The tenants on these estates were given perpetual leases by the patroons. Many of the tenants, however, believed that the War of the Revolution had destroyed the title of the patroons to this property, and they failed for years to pay their rent. When it was finally demanded they rose in arms (1840) and drove out the rent collectors.

For ten years discontent and disorder prevailed throughout these districts. Finally, after the courts had recognized the titles of the patroons as valid, a compromise was effected (1850) by which the proprietors sold the lands to the tenants at a reasonable price.

315. The Mormons. At this time a new religious sect arose in western New York. Joseph Smith, the leader, announced in 1823 that he had received from an angel a book composed of golden plates. He declared that this book told the story of the early inhabitants of America and the truth of a new gospel. He called it the *Book of Mormon*, from the name of the alleged writer of the book. Smith and his followers moved from New York westward, where they came in conflict with various state authorities.

THE PONY EXPRESS

While not a part of their original belief, polygamy soon became an article of their faith. Their peculiar doctrines soon aroused their neighbors, at that time plain backwoodsmen. The Mormons at last determined to get a new home in the Far West. Under the leadership of Brigham Young they reached the beautiful valley of the Great Salt Lake. Near its banks they founded (1848) Salt Lake City.

316. Development of the Express Business. William F. Harnden, who had been a conductor on the Boston and Worcester Railroad, announced (1839) that he had arranged to carry money, valuables, and packages between Boston and New York. For some months a valise or two sufficed to carry the

goods intrusted to him, but in a year the business had grown to goodly proportions. Alvin Adams and P. B. Burke established (1840) a rival express under the name Burke & Co., which became later (1854) the great Adams Express Company. Twenty years later the pony express was established to reach the Pacific coast. Stations were located ten miles apart between St. Joseph, Missouri, and Sacramento, California. Mounted on a fast pony, the messenger started across the plains to the first station, where a fresh horse was taken and the journey continued. At every third station a fresh rider took the mail. In eight days these riders traversed two thousand miles of prairies, deserts, and lonely mountain passes. It cost five dollars to send a letter by this express. The building of the telegraph lines to San Francisco put an end to the pony express, and the Wells-Fargo Express Company developed the express business of the Pacific coast.

This period witnessed interesting and vital movements. Many of the new states on admission to the Union established state universities from funds provided from the sale of public lands. The University of Michigan was founded in 1837. The question of "women's rights" first came to the front with a demand for the education of women in the public schools and colleges. In 1833 Oberlin College admitted women on the same terms as men. It was not until 1856, however, that a state university (Iowa) opened its doors to women.

SUMMARY

The leading events of Van Buren's administration (1837–1841) were:

The great crisis of 1837.

The establishment of the subtreasury in 1840.

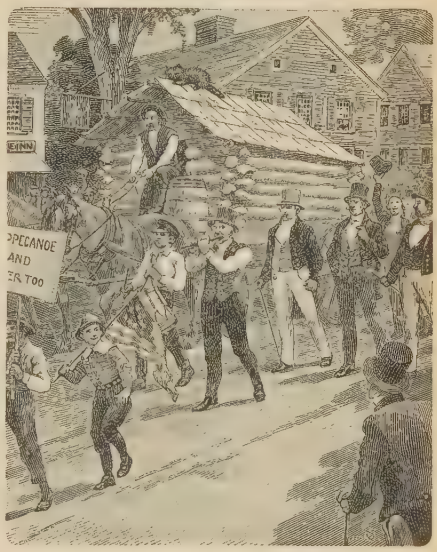
The anti-rent agitation in New York, which ended in 1850.

The rise of the Mormons and the settlement, in 1848, of Salt Lake City.

The beginning, in 1840, of the express business.

Harrison's Administration, 1841. Tyler's Administration, 1841–1845

317. The Election of Harrison and Tyler, 1841–1845. As Van Buren's term drew to a close the Whigs[1] determined to take advantage of the distress of the times and prevent, if possible, his reëlection. They nominated as their candidate for president William Henry Harrison,[2] the hero of Tippecanoe, and for vice president John Tyler. The contest was a most spirited one. A Democratic paper had contemptuously referred to Harrison as being better fitted to live in a log cabin, drinking hard cider and skinning coons, than in the White House. The Whigs at once took



HARRISON'S ELECTION

[1] After Jackson's administration his supporters, who had been called Democratic-Republicans, dropped the latter word and became known as Democrats. Their opponents took the name of Whigs. The Whigs in England were opposed to the king. In this country the enemies of Jackson claimed he was as tyrannical in his methods as any king could be, and hence they opposed him under the name of Whigs. They had nothing in common with one another except antagonism to Jackson, his policies and friends. The Whigs were in reality merely an anti-Jackson party.

[2] William Henry Harrison was born February 9, 1773, in Virginia. His father was one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence and governor of Virginia. Harrison served in the army and was appointed (1801) governor of Indiana Territory. He was later elected to the House of Representatives and to the Senate of the United States. He was defeated for president by Van Buren in 1836 and was elected over Van Buren in 1840. He died April 4, 1841.

up the cry and called him the log-cabin candidate. Log cabins were erected as the headquarters of the Whigs. With cheerings for "Tippecanoe and Tyler too," processions filled the streets, bearing models of log cabins with coon skins hanging at the door; immense meetings were held out of doors, at which thousands of people gathered. The enthusiasm of the people carried Harrison to victory.[1]

318. Death of Harrison. Tyler and the Whigs disagree. In the midst of the Whig rejoicings Harrison suddenly died, a month after his inauguration, and Tyler[2] became president. It was the first time in our history that a president had died in office.

Tyler was a states'-rights Democrat. He had been nominated by the Whigs to secure some of the electoral votes of the South. His views were in practically all respects entirely different from those of the Whig party that had elected him. The Whigs desired to pass a new high tariff act and to spend large sums of money for internal improvements. They wished above all to reëstablish the Bank of the United States, and a bill was drawn to this end.

It passed Congress, but President Tyler vetoed it on the ground that it was unconstitutional. Another bill, framed, it was claimed, to meet the president's objections, was passed, but President Tyler vetoed that bill also, as he found grave objections to it.

[1] The Democratic and the Whig parties refused to take up the slavery question. Therefore in this year the Liberty party, made up of antislavery men, nominated James G. Birney for president. He polled only seven thousand votes, but the increase in the number who in general believed in the ideas of this party gave them gradually the balance of power between the Democrats and the Whigs, which they used to advantage in the next twenty years.

[2] John Tyler was born in Virginia in 1790. His father was governor of that state for some years. Tyler was a lawyer, served in both Houses of Congress, and was governor of Virginia. He was elected vice president in 1840 and succeeded to the presidency in 1841. In 1861 he tried to bring about peace between the North and the South, and when these measures failed he followed his native state out of the Union. He died in 1862, while attending the sessions of the Confederate Congress in Richmond.

President Tyler was thereupon deserted by the Whig party, and his entire cabinet resigned with the exception of Daniel Webster, who remained to conclude his labors on the new treaty with England.

319. The Webster-Ashburton Treaty, 1842. The treaty of peace signed at the close of the Revolution had left in question a large territory — twelve thousand square miles — on our northeast boundary. England and the United States both claimed it, and war was imminent, as Maine had sent troops into the disputed territory. England now sent a commissioner, Lord Ashburton, to arrange a new treaty with Daniel Webster, Secretary of State. The boundaries were satisfactorily adjusted in 1842, Maine securing about seven thousand miles and England the remaining five thousand. The northern boundary of the Louisiana Purchase in the Northwest was also determined by accepting the line agreed upon in 1818, from the Lake of the Woods to the Rocky Mountains.

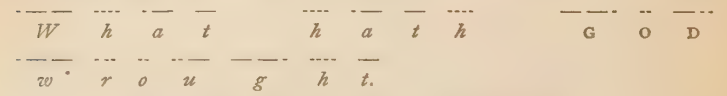
320. The Dorr Rebellion, 1842. The people of Rhode Island had been living under a constitution, granted as far back as the time of Charles II (1663), which allowed only landowners and their eldest sons or persons renting property to vote. Unless a man owned real estate he could not act as a juror nor bring a suit in any court of law until a property holder indorsed it. The representation in the legislature was absolutely unjust, as a struggling village had as great a representation as a flourishing city.

Having tried in vain to secure a change in the constitution, the people rebelled, formed a convention, and elected (1842) Thomas W. Dorr governor. As most of those who voted for Dorr were not legally voters, the existing state government refused to recognize him.

Both sides took up arms, but little bloodshed ensued. Dorr was finally arrested, convicted of treason, and sentenced to imprisonment for life, but he was soon pardoned. As a result of his work a new constitution was later adopted.

321. The Electric Telegraph. In 1837 S. F. B. Morse secured a patent for sending messages by electricity. Few believed in its worth, and the inventor struggled on in poverty for years. In 1843 he asked Congress to appropriate thirty thousand dollars for a telegraph line between Washington and Baltimore, a distance of forty miles.[1] There was bitter opposition to the bill, one member remarking that a railroad to the moon would be as reasonable. At midnight on the last day of the session the bill was carried, and the work was soon begun. Professor Morse sent the first message (May 24, 1844) from the Chamber of the United States Supreme Court. This message read: "What hath God wrought." It was sent to his assistant in Baltimore, who at once repeated it to Morse, while the onlookers were dumb with astonishment. The first news received over the telegraph was the nomination of Polk by the Democratic convention in Baltimore.

SAMUEL F. B. MORSE



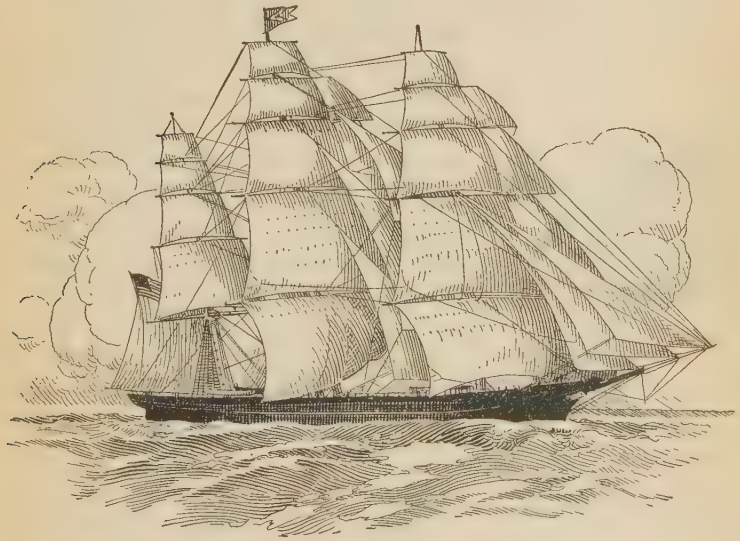
THE FIRST TELEGRAPHIC MESSAGE

322. The Packet and Clipper Ships. After the War of 1812 American merchants and shipbuilders started lines of small quick-sailing packet boats to Liverpool. This packet service,

[1] The first electromagnetic telegraph in the world was set up on the campus of Princeton College. It connected Nassau Hall with the residence of Professor Joseph Henry, the scientist.

wrote Charles Dickens in 1842, was "the finest in the world." One of these packets, the *Dreadnought*, covered the distance from Sandy Hook to Queenstown in nine days and seventeen hours, — up to this day the world's record for a sailing vessel.

In the meantime the clipper-ship era came in. They carried an enormous spread of sail and raced along before the wind.



A CLIPPER SHIP

The tea trade of China and the discovery of gold in California created a great demand for quick-sailing vessels to San Francisco. This opened the way for the wide use of the quick-sailing American clipper ship. The clipper-ship era began to pass away when iron vessels, driven by steam, appeared on all the oceans, and the American merchant marine virtually disappeared when the *Alabama* and other Southern cruisers swept the United States flag from the seas. After the Civil War the attention of American business men turned to railroad building and manufacturing, and the American merchant marine passed to foreign flags.

323. Texas secedes from Mexico. The burning question during Tyler's term was the annexation of Texas. In 1821 Mexico granted a tract of land in Texas to Moses Austin on condition that he would found a settlement. Many colonists poured in, especially from the Southern states. The Mexican government foresaw trouble over slavery and tried to stop American colonists from coming in, but without success.

In 1835 Mexico was changed by President Santa Anna from a federal to a centralized republic, by which the states lost their state rights and became mere departments, as is the system in France. Difficulties arose with Texas out of this change[1] and the Texans rebelled.

THE "LONE STAR" FLAG

Under General Sam Houston they attacked the Mexicans at San Antonio (December 10, 1835) and defeated them. Three months later Santa Anna led a strong force against the Alamo, a fortified church and monastery at San Antonio. Here one hundred and seventy men were besieged. After eleven days the Mexicans captured the Alamo[2] and put to death all within it. This act so enraged the Texans that the war cry became "Remember the Alamo!" The decisive battle was fought at San Jacinto[3] April 21, 1836, when the Mexicans were utterly routed.

324. The Republic of Texas. Texas thereupon became a republic, with a new constitution[4] which legalized slavery. Her independence was recognized by the United States, England, Belgium, and France. At once she applied for admission to the Union as a slave state. She was unsuccessful. In 1844

[1] The Texans did not look for independence at first. They merely desired to become a separate state within the Mexican Republic.

[2] Alamo (al'a mo).

[3] San Jacinto (sahn ha theen'toh).

[4] It was called from its flag the "Lone Star Republic." The Texans declared their independence March 2, 1836.

President Tyler negotiated a treaty with Texas providing for annexation, but it was rejected by the Senate.[1] The South desired the annexation of Texas, that she might increase the slave territory; the North opposed it, believing from this vast tract sufficient slave states would be formed to give the slave power control of the republic.

325. The Annexation of Texas. The Texas question was a leading issue in the next presidential campaign. Polk was nominated by the Democrats, Clay by the Whigs, and Birney by the Liberty party. Birney polled just enough of the votes which would normally have gone to Clay to defeat the latter, and Polk was elected.

The result of the election President Tyler interpreted as a verdict of the people in favor of the annexation of Texas. He proposed to Congress that Texas be treated like a territory applying for admission to the Union and be admitted by a joint resolution. This was done, and Texas, having accepted this method, became a state December 29, 1845, with the provision that with her consent four other states might be formed from her territory. The Texans, however, refused to divide up their state, and it gave the South, therefore, only two votes in the Senate. Texas was the last slave state admitted to the Union.

SUMMARY

The leading events of Harrison and Tyler's administrations were:
The death of President Harrison in 1841.
The Webster-Ashburton Treaty of 1842.
The Dorr Rebellion in Rhode Island in 1842.
The invention, in 1837, of Morse's electric telegraph.
The annexation of Texas in 1845.

[1] Henry Clay had declared, "Annexation and war with Mexico are identical." Mexico had officially warned us that the annexation of Texas would be considered a cause of war. The United States government replied that it regarded Texas as an independent nation and could therefore deal with it without consulting any other nation.

REVIEW EXAMINATION

1. Write a brief account of the following: (*a*) the first railroad; (*b*) the first steamboat; (*c*) the first telegraph; (*d*) the first canal.

2. Give an account of the financial crisis of 1837 and state two results of this crisis.

3. What changes of sentiment in regard to taxing imports took place in the North and in the South between 1814 and 1835? What tariff troubles occurred in Jackson's administration?

4. What was the doctrine of nullification? What was President Jackson's attitude toward it?

5. What is meant by the phrase, "To the victor belong the spoils"? Did Jackson originate the doctrine?

6. What were the two chief political topics of Jackson's administration?

7. What was the effect of the Black Hawk War of 1832?

8. What was the occasion of the Webster-Hayne debate of 1830? What was the main point at issue in this debate? What position did each statesman take on the main issue?

9. What important invention was first used in Tyler's administration?

10. What steps led to the admission of Texas to the Union?

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POLK'S ADMINISTRATION,[1] 1845–1849

326. The Settlement of Oregon. By a treaty made in 1818 the United States and Great Britain agreed to occupy Oregon as a joint possession, free and open to the subjects of both countries for a term of ten years, to be renewed if both parties so wished.[2]

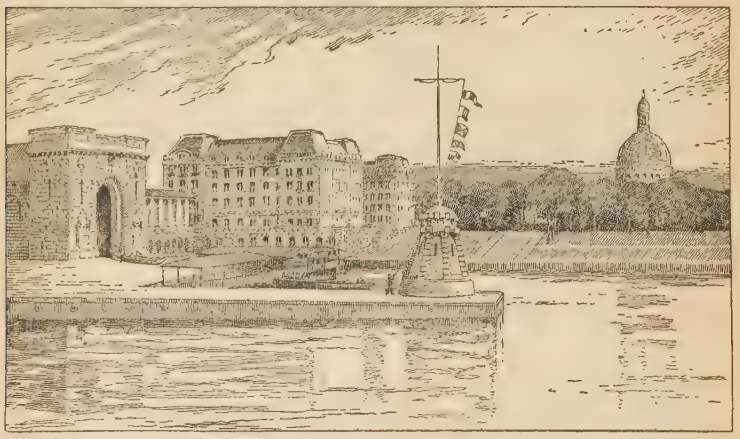
As we have seen, Captain Gray of Boston discovered and named the Columbia River in 1792. Lewis and Clark later explored this territory, and John Jacob Astor established here his fur-trading colony, which was named Astoria.

The Hudson Bay Company had posts throughout the territory, especially north of the Columbia River. Their principal

[1] James K. Polk was born in North Carolina in 1795. Eleven years later his family moved to Tennessee. Polk studied law and was elected to Congress in 1824. He was chosen governor of Tennessee in 1839. Because he favored the annexation of Texas he was nominated for president by the Democrats. In the election he defeated Henry Clay, who had been nominated by the Whigs. Polk died in 1849, three months after his term as president had expired.

[2] By the treaty of 1819 with Spain the forty-second parallel was the northern limit of Spanish territory. Oregon therefore covered the area between 42° and 54° 40′ north latitude.

station was Fort Vancouver, nearly opposite the mouth of the Willamette. Here resided Dr. John McLoughlin,[1] the "chief factor" or agent for the company in the Pacific Northwest. The Canadian settlers and Indians had asked for priests to minister to them, and in 1838 Fathers Blanchet and Demers left Montreal for the Oregon country, where they established many missions.



THE NAVAL ACADEMY

Two years later Father De Smet, the famous Jesuit missionary, started from the Missouri River with a large party of emigrants. He founded (1841) his first mission among the Flathead Indians on the Bitter Root River, and later established many others.[2]

[1] Dr. McLoughlin was born in Quebec of Irish parentage and was thirty-nine years of age when he arrived in Oregon. "White men and red alike revered him," says H. H. Bancroft.

[2] Father De Smet went to Europe in 1843 to secure missionaries and teachers. He returned with several priests, and Sisters of Notre Dame of Namur, who opened a school for girls. So rapid was the spiritual growth in Oregon that Father Blanchet was appointed Bishop December 1, 1843. Father De Smet "was well fitted to make a favorable impression upon the savages and to succeed in a field which others had either shunned or abandoned." — H. H. BANCROFT, "Oregon," I, 323

Father De Smet's "Oregon Missions and Travels over the Rocky Mountains" may be read in Vols. XXVIII, XXIX of "Early Western Travels"

327. Founding of the Naval Academy, 1845. Through the efforts of George Bancroft, the historian, who was at this time Secretary of the Navy, the Naval Academy was founded in 1845 to train officers for the navy of the country. This famous school is located at Annapolis, Maryland.

328. The Adjustment of the Oregon Question, 1846. The resources of the Oregon country in the years following 1842 attracted thousands of settlers, who in long caravans toiled through the passes of the Rockies.[1] Throughout the West the people began to demand the absolute possession of Oregon; that is, all the territory from California as far as the southern boundary of Russian America (Alaska), which was 54° 40′ north latitude.[2]

THE OREGON COUNTRY

England, on the other hand, claimed that Drake had discovered this coast and that settlements had been made by English colonists. She declined to yield up this vast tract of rich country and thereby cut herself off from the Pacific coast.

She finally proposed, as a compromise, a division of the territory at the forty-ninth parallel. This was our northern boundary from the Great Lakes to the Rocky Mountains, and it was now extended to the Pacific. An agreement was reached on this basis, and Oregon was made a territory with the prohibition of slavery (1848).

[1] Professor E. G. Bourne in his "Essays on Historical Criticism" shows that the story of Marcus Whitman and his visit to Washington to save Oregon has no historic basis. Whitman came East to prevent the closing of his missions, and he had nothing to do with saving Oregon, the value of which was well known.

[2] Hence arose the famous cry, "The whole of Oregon or none! Fifty-four forty or fight!"

329. The War with Mexico, 1846–1848. Battles of Palo Alto, Resaca de la Palma, and Buena Vista. Texas, on her admission to the Union, claimed the Rio Grande[1] as her southern and western boundary, while Mexico maintained that the Nueces[2] River formed the boundary.[3] President Polk, however, agreed with the Texans[4] and ordered General Zachary Taylor to seize the disputed territory. Taylor did so, advancing to the north bank of the Rio Grande, where he built Fort Brown. Directly opposite was the Mexican city of Matamoros. The conflict was not long postponed. The Mexicans crossed the river and attacked a band of United States soldiers. Taylor at once attacked the Mexicans and in the battles of Palo Alto[5] (May 8, 1846) and Resaca de la Palma[6] (May 9, 1846) defeated them. He thereupon crossed the Rio Grande and took Matamoros. A few days later war was declared (May 13, 1846) against Mexico, and fifty thousand volunteers were called for.

330. The Plan of Campaign. The plan of campaign was threefold: General Taylor was to control the Rio Grande and move southward; General Stephen W. Kearny, who was at

[1] *Rio Grande* (ree'o grahn'day) means "great river." President Polk sent Slidell of Louisiana to Mexico to negotiate for the purchase of New Mexico and California, but the Mexican government refused to receive him. In 1847 another attempt at peace was made when President Polk sent another envoy, but this mission also failed.

[2] Nueces (noo ay'thayce).

[3] The southern boundary of Texas when it was part of one of the states of the Republic of Mexico was the Nueces River. As part of the Louisiana Purchase, however, the Rio Grande was assumed to be the southern boundary.

[4] General Grant, who served in the Mexican War, said in his Memoirs, p. 37: "I was bitterly opposed to the measure [the annexation of Texas] and to this day regard the war which resulted as one of the most unjust ever waged by a stronger against a weaker nation. It is an instance of a republic's following the bad example of European monarchies, in not considering justice in their desire to acquire additional territory. . . . The Southern rebellion was largely the outgrowth of the Mexican War. Nations, like individuals, are punished for their transgressions. We got our punishment in the most sanguinary and expensive war of modern times."

[5] *Palo Alto* (pah'lo ahl'to) means "tall tree."

[6] *Resaca de la Palma* (ray sah'cah day lah pahl'ma), "ravine of the palm."

Fort Leavenworth, Kansas, was to conquer New Mexico and California; General Winfield Scott, the commander in chief, was to advance from Vera Cruz to the city of Mexico. In the autumn of 1846 Taylor captured the town of Matamoros and

THE MEXICAN WAR

then moved against the city of Monterey,[1] which he won after a three days' battle (September 23, 1846).

He was now ordered to send all but five thousand of his troops to General Scott. In this weakened condition he was attacked at Buena Vista[2] by the Mexican general, Santa Anna, who had a vastly superior force. Taylor won a decided victory (February 23, 1847).

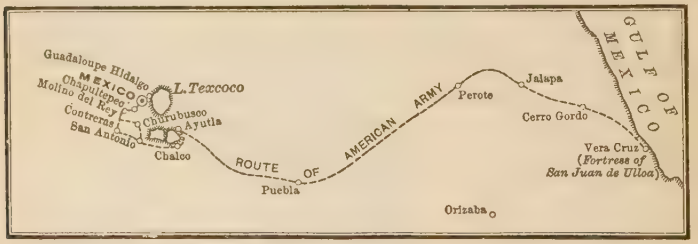
[1] *Monterey* (mon tay ray'ee) means "king's mountain."

[2] *Buena Vista* (bway'nah vees'tah) means "beautiful view."

331. New Mexico and California. In the summer of 1846 General Kearny had marched from Fort Leavenworth to conquer New Mexico and California. He easily made his way to Santa Fe,[1] which surrendered (August 18, 1846) without opposition, and New Mexico passed under our rule.

In the meantime the American settlers at Sonoma in the Sacramento valley declared California to be an independent republic. They raised the Bear flag of the new republic.

Commodore Sloat took Monterey on the Pacific coast for the United States (July 7, 1846), and raised the Stars and Stripes



ROUTE OF GENERAL SCOTT

of the Union. Sloat ordered Captain Montgomery, of the United States sloop of war *Portsmouth*, to seize San Francisco, which was at once done. The Sonoma republic now lowered its Bear flag and raised instead the flag of the Union. Commodore Stockton captured Los Angeles,[2] and soon the United States colors were floating over all the territory.

332. Scott's March to the City of Mexico, 1847. After his defeat at Buena Vista, Santa Anna hastened to attack Scott, who had landed at Vera Cruz.[3] This port was defended by a

[1] *Santa Fe* (sahn'tah fay) means "holy faith." It had been founded probably in 1582 and is the second oldest town in the United States.

[2] *Los Angeles* (Spanish pronunciation, lōce an'hell ace; American pronunciation, lōs ăn'jĕl ĕs) means "the angels." Its full Spanish name was Nuestra Señora la Reina de los Angeles, "Our Lady, the Queen of the Angels."

[3] *Vera Cruz* (vay'rah croos) means "true cross." Its full name was Villa Rica de la Vera Cruz, "The Rich City of the True Cross." It was founded by the intrepid explorer Cortés, whose route to the city of Mexico was followed by Scott

fort called San Juan de Ulloa,[1] at that time a position of great strength. For four days Scott rained shot and shell upon it, until it surrendered (March 29, 1847). Scott now started for the city of Mexico, about two hundred and sixty miles away. The road led through mountain passes. At Cerro Gordo,[2] one

SCOTT ENTERING MEXICO

of the higher spurs, the Mexicans, fifteen thousand strong, awaited Scott, but he defeated them (April 18, 1847).

The city of Puebla[3] next fell into his hands. He waited here almost three months and then started for the capital. He soon met the Mexicans and defeated them (August 20) at Contreras.[4] They thereupon fell back the same day to Churubusco,[5] where they fortified themselves in and around the old monastery. Here another battle was fought, ending in the

[1] San Juan de Ulloa (sahn whahn day ool yo'ah).
[2] *Cerro Gordo* (ther'ro gor'do) means "large hill."
[3] Puebla (pway'blah).
[4] Contreras (con tray'ras).
[5] Churubusco (choo roo boos'co).

defeat of the Mexicans. Our troops pushed steadily onward, fighting the battle of Molino del Rey[1] (September 8). At last they reached the strongly fortified height of Chapultepec,[2] which overlooked the city of Mexico. Chapultepec fell (September 13), and the next day our army entered the city of Mexico.

The fall of the capital ended the war. We had won every battle.

333. The Peace Treaty, 1848. A treaty of peace was signed February 2, 1848, at Guadalupe-Hidalgo,[3] by which Mexico ceded New Mexico and California to the United States. As we already possessed Texas, with the Rio Grande as its southern boundary, an area about nine hundred thousand square miles in extent was added to our domain, — a territory nearly five times the size of France and twenty times as large as Pennsylvania.

In return we paid Mexico fifteen million dollars and assumed the claims of our citizens against Mexico, amounting to three and a quarter million dollars. We also assumed the debt of Texas, amounting to seven and one-half millions. An important result of the war was the education of many officers who were later to figure prominently in the Civil War.[4]

334. The Wilmot Proviso, 1846. During the Mexican War, David Wilmot, a Democrat from Pennsylvania, proposed (1846) a measure called after him the Wilmot Proviso.[5] It sought to exclude slavery from all the territory to be acquired from Mexico. As Mexico had already (1829) abolished slavery

[1] *Molino del Rey* (mo lee'no del ray'ee) means "king's mill." This was a grain mill, strongly garrisoned and surrounded by a wall.

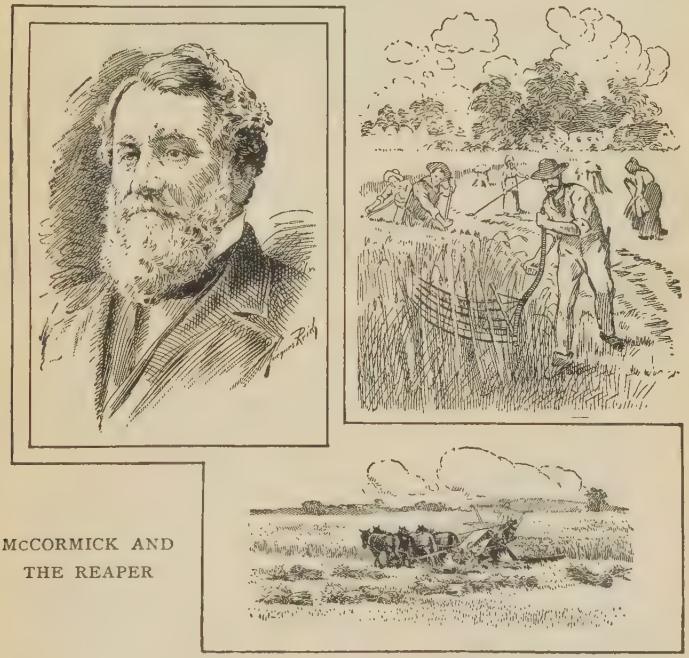
[2] *Chapultepec* (chah pool tay pek') means "the hill of the grasshopper."

[3] Guadalupe-Hidalgo (gwah dah loo'pay-ee dahl'go) is a suburb of the city of Mexico and contains the famous shrine of Our Lady of Guadalupe.

[4] Grant, Lee, Thomas, Sherman, McClellan, Beauregard, Shields, and Jackson were some of the officers trained in this war.

[5] A bill had been introduced into Congress appropriating two million dollars for the purchase of the disputed territory from Mexico. To this bill Wilmot moved to add his Proviso, "that neither slavery nor involuntary servitude shall ever exist in any part of said territory except as a punishment for crime."

throughout the republic, except in Texas, Wilmot desired to prevent the reintroduction of the slave system into the area that Mexico might cede to us. The Proviso led to earnest and bitter debates on the slavery question, the North warmly favoring the measure, the South as strongly opposing it. It passed the House of Representatives, but failed in the Senate.



McCORMICK AND THE REAPER

335. Great Inventions. The Reaper and Sewing Machine. During this and the following administrations a number of great inventions ushered in a new industrial era. Obed Hussey of Maryland patented (1833) a reaper. Six months later Cyrus H. McCormick of Virginia secured a patent on his reaper. For some years McCormick tried in vain to sell his machines. At last the farmers of the great West recognized the value of the new invention, and the reapers came

into general use. They have rendered possible the profitable cultivation of the Western wheat fields and greatly reduced the price of bread.

Elias Howe, who lived in the direst poverty, watched his wife one day while she toiled with her needle and conceived the idea of building a machine to do the arduous work of sewing. He toiled for many years and took out his first patent in 1846. Howe's ideas were developed by others until sewing machines were in practically every household. They were introduced (1862) into shoe factories, under McKay's patent, and brought about a great reduction in the price of shoes.

ELIAS HOWE

336. Goodyear's Discovery. The Use of Ether. The year 1849 witnessed the great discovery of Goodyear in the perfecting of the treatment of india rubber. For years various attempts had been made to manufacture goods from rubber, but they were unsuccessful, as the heat melted the goods in summer and the cold cracked them in winter. Goodyear, after working for years, at last accidentally discovered vulcanization, a process by which sulphur is mixed with the rubber gum and then subjected to great heat. In this way rubber can be made not only hard or soft but durable, and the secret was thus discovered by which rubber goods became so important a part of man's life.

The greatest boon in the history of the world for the relief of suffering humanity came in the years from 1842 to 1846. Dr. Crawford W. Long of Georgia performed, in 1842, an operation, using ether to render the patient unconscious of pain. Dr. Wells of Hartford, in 1844, had nitrous oxide gas (laughing gas) administered to himself for the extraction of one of his teeth, and discovered that it produced insensibility to pain. As

A CALIFORNIA MISSION

the result of a successful operation in the Massachusetts General Hospital, Dr. Morton, a dentist in Boston, and Dr. Jackson, a chemist, proclaimed, in 1846, the value of ether for producing absolute insensibility with safety. This wonderful discovery has rendered possible the most delicate and vital operations while the patients have remained in profound unconsciousness.[1]

337. The Great Immigration from Europe. In 1848 and 1849 revolutionary ideas began to spread through Europe. The king of France was driven from his throne; in Germany there were uprisings in almost all the states. In Austria-Hungary the Hungarians rebelled and drove out the Austrians. As a result of these revolutions, especially in Germany, many Germans came to America and founded new homes here. A great famine occurred in Ireland (1847–1848) through the failure of the potato crop and thousands of Irish men and women came to America. This large stream of immigrants added to the population, took up unoccupied lands, and furnished the labor so necessary to carry on the work of building railroads, canals, and cities.

338. The Early Explorations of California. An event now occurred that was destined to exert a great influence on our history, — the discovery of gold in California. Before considering this event a brief sketch of the early history of California is necessary. The fearless explorer Cortés explored (1535) the gulf and peninsula of Lower California. Seven years later Cabrillo[2] explored the Pacific coast of California, entering the harbor of San Diego[3] (1542). In 1602 Sebastian Vizcaino,[4] with three vessels, sailed from Acapulco, explored the Bay of San Diego, and discovered the Bay of Monterey. In 1697 the Jesuits began the work of spreading the Gospel and

[1] Among the other inventions about this period were the Hoe printing presses, Colt's revolver, Ericsson's screw propeller, the steam fire engine, the eccentric lathe, the friction match, the daguerreotype, and the planing machine.

[2] Cabrillo (cah breel'yo).

[3] *San Diego* (dee ay'go) means "St. James."

[4] Vizcaino (veeth cah ee'no).

civilization among the native Indians.[1] Mission after mission was founded in Lower California, until the society was expelled from the Spanish dominions in 1767. For many years California had been neglected by Spain. Two causes at last served to awake the mother country: first, the fear that the coast would be seized and occupied by another power; second, the need of harbors whither the richly laden ships coming from the Philippines could seek safety from storms or pirates.

339. Foundation of the Missions. Spurred on by orders from Spain, the viceroy of Mexico now determined to push the occupation and civilization of California. The Franciscans were invited to extend their aid in converting, civilizing, and educating the Indians.[2] The superior of the order, Father Junipero Serra, personally led in the good work. San Diego was the first of the California missions established (1769), and "the pilgrims there sang the first Christian hymn heard on [Upper] California's shores." Immediately following the foundation of San Diego an expedition under Don Gaspar de Portolá went northward and discovered (1769) the Bay of San Francisco. Monterey was founded in 1770, and in rapid succession San Francisco (1776), Santa Clara (1777), San Jose[3] (1797), Los Angeles (1781), Santa Barbara (1786), and many

[1] This work was planned and carried out under Father Salvatierra, assisted by other Jesuits. "Father Salvatierra taught," says Blackmar, in "Spanish Institutions of the Southwest," p. 80, "the natives to till the soil, to construct houses, to learn trades; and he practised them in the observances of the Church. Their children were instructed in the rudiments of learning. He looked out for their physical comfort, endeavoring to make them happy and contented as he taught them the arts of a new civilization." The money necessary for carrying on these missionary plans was contributed by charitable persons. This was the celebrated "Pious Fund," which later became a cause of dispute between Mexico and the United States. The dispute was the first case settled at The Hague.

[2] The Franciscans had come to Mexico in 1524 and established the mission of San Fernando, that became the mother of all the Franciscan missions in Mexico and California. The Jesuits came in 1572, having already established missions in Havana and among the Seminole Indians of Florida. The Carmelites arrived in 1585, and the Benedictines in 1589. To the Dominicans were given later the missions of Lower California.

[3] *San Jose* (sahn ho say') means "St. Joseph."

others, until an unbroken line of missions, twenty-one in number, joined San Diego to San Francisco, spreading on all sides the truths of the Gospel and the blessings of civilization.

340. Decline of the Missions. In 1813 the first step in removing the missions from the care of the Religious Orders

THE EARLY MISSIONS OF CALIFORNIA

was taken by the Spanish government, but the decree was not carried out. In 1833 the Mexican government decided to enforce the earlier decree, making the missions state property. It was the beginning of the end of the system.[1] Gradually the

[1] Speaking of the work of the Franciscans, Dwinelle, in "Colonial History of San Francisco," p. 84, says: "It was something, surely, that over thirty thousand wild, barbarous and naked Indians had been brought in from their savage haunts, persuaded to wear clothes, accustomed to a regular life, . . . , taught to read and write, . . . , accustomed to the service of the Church, partaking of its sacraments, and indoctrinated in the Christian religion."

missions decayed; the natives were scattered, until in 1845 the property that had not been stolen or squandered by the officials was actually offered to the highest bidder. Before this step could be carried out, however, the flag of the United States was raised, and General Kearny decreed, in 1847, that the missions and their property should remain in the hands of the Religious Orders until the legal title could be decided.

341. Discovery of Gold, 1848. About this time the whole aspect of affairs in California was changed by the world-famous gold discovery. Some years before, a Swiss settler named Sutter had established an estate and fort on the Sacramento River in California. While one of his workmen, named Marshall, was building a sawmill on a fork of the American River about forty miles from the fort, he noticed (January 24, 1848) shining particles in the mill race. These proved to be gold. The news traveled quickly, and a wild rush began for the mountains.

342. The Emigration to California. From every side, north and south, east and west, the miners poured in. Some came overland across the prairies and deserts, where thousands perished from thirst, the cholera, and attacks of the Indians; others rounded Cape Horn in sailing vessels, while many came by way of the Isthmus of Panama.

San Francisco at the time of the gold discovery was a collection of mud huts, with seven hundred inhabitants. It soon became a city of twenty thousand inhabitants. No less than ninety thousand immigrants arrived within two years of Marshall's discovery. These were the famous "Forty-niners."

So great now became the number of settlers and so desperate were many of the gold seekers that it became necessary to frame some system of laws to protect life and property. At first vigilance committees were appointed, and later a convention was called to frame a state constitution. A clause prohibiting slavery was passed unanimously. This constitution was adopted by the people (1849), and application was thereupon made for the admission of California as a state of the Union.

343. Election of Taylor. The question of the extension of slavery was daily becoming more troublesome. In 1848 the Whigs nominated General Zachary Taylor, the hero of Buena Vista; the Democrats nominated Lewis Cass of Michigan. The platform of neither party made any references to slavery.

THE SCENE OF THE GOLD DISCOVERY

A third party was the Free-Soilers. This party would not interfere with slavery in the slave states, but it was unalterably opposed to any extension of slavery into new territory or beyond the Mississippi. The Free-Soilers nominated Martin Van Buren. He polled enough Democratic votes in New York to cause Cass to lose the state and the election, and Taylor became president.

SUMMARY

The leading events of Polk's administration (1845–1849) were:
The adjustment of the Oregon question.
The Mexican War, 1846–1848.
The Wilmot Proviso of 1846.
The discovery of ether and development of great inventions.
The discovery of gold in California in 1848.

Taylor's Administration, 1849–1850. Fillmore's Administration, 1850–1853

344. The Compromise of 1850. Scarcely had Taylor[1] been inaugurated when there arose the question of the admission of California. As this state extended both north and south of the parallel of 36° 30′, it was proposed that the question be settled by extending the Missouri Compromise line to the Pacific. At this time the balance was evenly maintained between the free and the slave states, each having fifteen.[2]

The admission of California as a free state would upset that balance and give the free states control of the Senate. They already controlled the House of Representatives. The South, therefore, opposed the admission of all of California as a free state and urged delay or, at least, the extension of the Missouri Compromise line.

There were many other difficult problems to be solved. In the territory ceded by Mexico, besides California, some form of government had to be established, and the question of slavery there had to be settled in some way. Again, Texas claimed that part of New Mexico which lies east of the Rio Grande, a claim the New Mexicans contested. The North, too, objected to slavery in the District of Columbia, while the South demanded a better law to regain slaves that had run away to the North.

345. The Omnibus Bill. At length Henry Clay once more appeared as peacemaker and proposed a scheme to settle the

[1] Zachary Taylor was born in Virginia in 1784, and soon removed with his father, who was a Revolutionary officer, to a plantation in Kentucky. He entered the army, rose to distinction in Indian battles, and in the Mexican War gained fame for his successes. He was loved by his soldiers, who called him "Old Rough and Ready." He took little interest in politics and never voted. He owned a large plantation in Louisiana, where he had many slaves, but he did not desire to see the system extended to territory where the people opposed it. He died July 9, 1850.

[2] Florida, admitted in 1845, was offset by Iowa (1846), and Texas (1845) by Wisconsin (1848).

difficulties. His bill, known as the Compromise of 1850, or the Omnibus Bill, was made up of the following provisions:

1. The admission of California as a free state.

2. Territorial governments for New Mexico and Utah without reference to slavery.[1]

3. The payment to Texas of ten million dollars for her claims to part of New Mexico.

4. The prohibition of the slave trade, but not of slavery, in the District of Columbia.

5. A stringent fugitive-slave law.

This compromise led to an earnest debate, in which Clay, Webster, Chase, and Seward took leading parts; Clay and Webster favored, while Chase and Seward denounced, the Compromise measures.[2] While the Compromise Acts were pending, President Taylor died (July 9, 1850). He had been in office only sixteen months. Vice President Fillmore at once took his place. Fillmore was favorable to the Compromise and aided in its passage. In the form of separate bills the Compromise became a law during August and September, 1850.

California, under the Compromise, was admitted to the Union, September 9, 1850, giving the free states now a majority of one in the Senate.[3]

[1] This bill provided that the people in each territory should determine for themselves whether their territory would be free or slave. This was called "popular" or "squatter" sovereignty, the word *squatter* meaning "settler." Lewis Cass of Michigan was the author of this idea.

[2] In this debate Senator Seward said: "There is a higher law than the Constitution," meaning the moral law, which rejected, he maintained, the very idea of slavery. This "higher law" doctrine became very popular in the North after this time.

[3] The Clayton-Bulwer Treaty between the United States and Great Britain went into effect in 1850. It provided that neither country should exercise exclusive control over any Central American ship canal (see sect. 506).

In the administration of President Garfield, Secretary of State James G. Blaine tried without success to have this treaty abrogated. A convention signed November 18, 1901, by the United States and Great Britain provided for "a complete abrogation of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty and assured to the United States the sole right to construct and maintain" the canal across the Isthmus of Panama.

346. The Fugitive Slave Law. The passage of the Fugitive Slave Law as part of the Compromise aroused the deepest excitement in the North.[1] According to the provisions of this law United States officers, on the oath of an owner or his agent, could seize a colored person anywhere and turn him or her over to the claimant. Even years of residence in a free state gave the negro no rights whatever. As soon as the law was enacted, thousands of negroes, therefore, fled across the border into Canada. The slave could give no testimony and could not demand trial by jury, while heavy penalties could be inflicted on anyone assisting a slave to escape. The attempts of the officers to arrest runaway slaves provoked the bitterest feelings in many Northern cities. In some places the captured slaves were rescued and sent into Canada. Friends of the slaves secretly helped them from city to city till they reached the northern border. This method of rescuing the slaves was called the "Underground Railroad." One of the worst features of this bill was, it was claimed, the arrest of free negroes and their transfer to slavery again in the South.

347. Personal Liberty Laws. Cheap Postage. The passage of the Fugitive Slave Law led, in practically all the Northern states, to the enactment of laws, called Personal Liberty Laws, to protect the fugitive slaves. These laws in many cases really amounted to nullification, as their object was to defeat a national law.

In 1851 Congress took a long step toward cheaper postage. At this time it cost five cents to send a half-ounce letter to any point less than three hundred miles and ten cents beyond that distance. Congress now reduced the price for each half-ounce letter to three cents for three thousand miles and six cents for a greater distance. Adhesive stamps had been introduced only four years earlier.

[1] The Fugitive Slave Law of 1793 was of little value, as it required the aid of the state authorities to carry it out. This new law recognized slavery as a national institution and protected the property in slaves

INDIAN AND WESTERN TRAILS

348. "Uncle Tom's Cabin." While the return of fugitive slaves under the Compromise of 1850 had deeply stirred the antislavery spirit of the North, this intense feeling was greatly increased by the publication in 1852 of Mrs. Stowe's "Uncle Tom's Cabin," a story dealing with life in the South. The sales of this book reached millions of copies. It was translated into twenty languages. More than any other single force its publication stirred up the antislavery feeling and increased the ranks of those opposed to the extension of slavery. The South maintained that the book depicted unusual and extreme cases and was not a true picture of Southern life.

349. The Gadsden Purchase, 1853. As difficulties arose in adjusting our southwestern boundary, a new treaty was made (December, 1853) with Mexico by which the United States purchased the land. This purchase added about forty-five thousand square miles to our domain in the territories of Arizona and New Mexico, between the Gila[1] River and our present boundary. The price paid was ten million dollars. It is called the Gadsden Purchase, after James Gadsden, United States minister to Mexico, who arranged the matter.

In the election of 1852 both parties in their platforms endorsed the Compromise of 1850, hoping to end the slavery discussion. Franklin Pierce, the Democratic candidate, received the electoral votes of every state except four. The Whig candidate was General Winfield Scott.

SUMMARY

The leading events of Taylor's and Fillmore's administrations (1849–1853) were:

The Compromise of 1850 and slavery discussion.
The Fugitive Slave Law troubles.
The publication of "Uncle Tom's Cabin."
The Gadsden Purchase of 1853.

[1] Gila (hee'lah)

all the territory under the Federal government was now fixed.

353. The Kansas-Nebraska Act. There was, however, no regularly established government for the rich Louisiana Purchase, which the people of the frontier states wished to enter and settle. It was now determined to organize, under the

[1] Franklin Pierce was born in New Hampshire in 1804. He became a successful lawyer and was elected to the national House of Representatives and to the Senate. As president he opposed all antislavery measures, being an advocate of the doctrine of states' rights. He supported the Union during the Civil War and died in 1869.

name of Nebraska, a territorial form of government for the entire Louisiana country west of Minnesota Territory, Iowa,[1] and Missouri. The bill to organize this territory was introduced in 1854 by Stephen A. Douglas,[2] senator from Illinois.

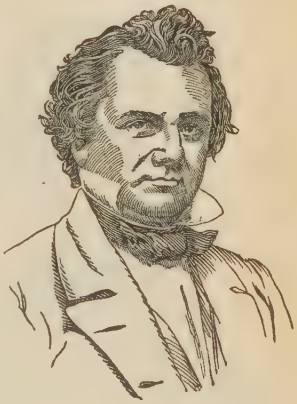
[1] Iowa had been admitted as a state in 1846.

[2] Stephen A. Douglas was born in Vermont in 1813, and went to Illinois, where he became a judge of the state supreme court. He was representative in Congress and senator of the United States. He was an able orator, and was called from his small stature the "Little Giant." He died in 1861

LINE OF 1846
LINE OF 1818
WASHINGTON 1889
OREGON 1859
(1792) 1846
1890
MONTANA 1889
NORTH DAKOTA 1889
MINNESOTA 1858
1818
SOUTH DAKOTA 1889
WYOMING 1890
NEBRASKA 1867
1803
COLORADO 1876
KANSAS 1861
Disputed
1848
NEVADA 1864
UTAH 1896
CALIFORNIA 1850
ARIZONA 1912
NEW MEXICO 1911
1845.48
1853
OKLAHOMA 1907
TEXAS 1845
1845
IOWA 1846
MISSOURI 1821
ARKANSAS 1836
LOUISIANA 1812
MISSISSIPPI 1817
ALABAMA 1819
WISCONSIN 1848
ILLINOIS 1818
MICHIGAN 1837
INDIANA 1816
OHIO 1803
KENTUCKY 1792
TENNESSEE 1796
1783
1783-1795
LINE OF 1795
1810-13
WEST VIRGINIA 1863
VIRGINIA
NORTH CAROLINA
SOUTH CAROLINA
GEORGIA
1819
1845
NEW YORK
PENNSYLVANIA
NEW JERSEY
1787
MASS.
CONN.
1842
MAINE 1820
TERRITORIAL GROWTH OF CONTINENTAL UNITED STATES
SCALE OF MILES
0 100 200 300 400 500
Longitude West from Greenwich
120° 110° 100° 90° 80°
40° 30°

Douglas's bill provided for the right of the settlers to decide for themselves whether the territory should be slave or free. This was Cass's doctrine of popular, or squatter, sovereignty, which had been applied to New Mexico and Utah in the Compromise of 1850. The Compromise of 1850, Douglas declared, had rendered null and void the Missouri Compromise of 1820, which excluded slavery forever from this territory.

He later amended his bill to provide for two territories; it is therefore called the Kansas-Nebraska Act.[1]



STEPHEN A. DOUGLAS

354. Effect of Introduction of Kansas-Nebraska Act. The act also declared that the Missouri Compromise of 1820 was repealed. As soon as the act was introduced, a violent debate arose in Congress. Against the act were Chase, Sumner, Everett, and Seward. Those in favor of it were led by Douglas and Jefferson Davis. Meetings in protest were held in most Northern cities. Douglas was denounced, and he says his entire journey from Washington to Chicago was lighted by the blaze of his own burning effigies.

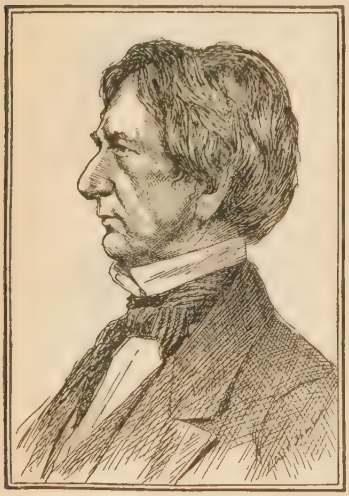
The leaders of the South were entirely willing to see Nebraska a free state, but they claimed that Kansas should be a slave state. With the passage of the Kansas-Nebraska Act both sides rushed to secure the territory of Kansas before the other side should arrive.

355. Result of Kansas-Nebraska Act. In spite of the most earnest opposition the act became a law (May 30, 1854).

[1] Kansas was to extend from 37° to 40°, north latitude, and Nebraska from 40° to 49°. It was thought Kansas, as it lay west of Missouri, would become a slave state, while Nebraska, adjoining Iowa, would become a free state. The territories of Kansas and Nebraska under this act were much larger than are the present states of that name, as they both extended westward to the Rocky Mountains.

The Missouri Compromise of 1820 had been the law of the land for thirty-four years, and everyone had felt that the area north of the line of 36° 30′ had been dedicated to freedom for all time.

The passage of the Kansas-Nebraska[1] Act upset these ideas, and the whole slavery question was open again for discussion. The great and fertile lands west of the Mississippi were the prize to secure which the North and South now entered the contest.



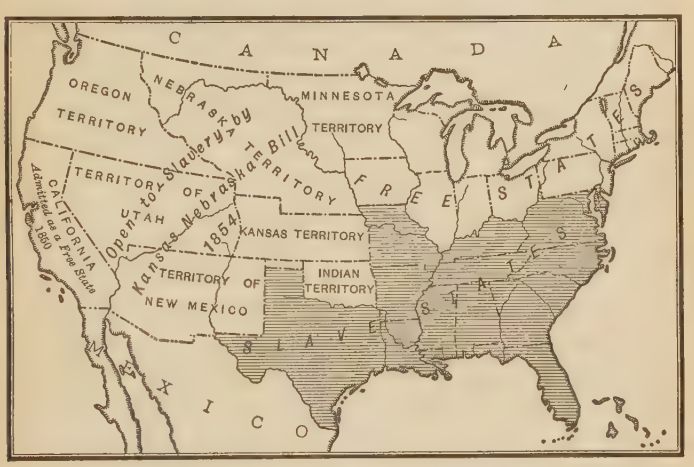
WILLIAM H. SEWARD

An immediate consequence of the Kansas-Nebraska Act was the formation of the Republican party at Jackson, Michigan, in July, 1854. This party was made up of Free-Soilers, antislavery Democrats, and antislavery Whigs, and it selected the name "Republican" as standing for human liberty and the rights of man, as the Jeffersonian Republican party had.

356. Ostend Manifesto. The desire, especially on the part of Southern leaders, to secure the rich island of Cuba for the United States had led to many filibustering expeditions, which

[1] "It is safe to say that in the scope and consequences of the Kansas-Nebraska Act it was the most momentous measure that passed Congress from the day that the senators and representatives first met to the outbreak of the Civil War. It sealed the doom of the Whig party; it caused the formation of the Republican party on the principle of no extension of slavery. . . . It made the Fugitive Slave Law a dead letter at the North; it caused the Germans to become Republicans; it lost the Democrats their hold on New England; it made the Northwest Republican; it led to the downfall of the Democratic party." — RHODES, "History of the United States," Vol. I, p. 490

had all failed. In 1854, at the request of President Pierce, the American ministers to Great Britain, France, and Spain — Buchanan, Mason, and Soulé — met at Ostend in Belgium and drew up the so-called Ostend Manifesto. They declared that Spain should sell Cuba to the United States, and if she refused to do so, the United States would have the right to seize the



EFFECT OF THE KANSAS-NEBRASKA ACT

island by force if necessary. No action was taken by our government on this extraordinary and unlawful proposition, and for forty-four years longer Cuba remained under the flag of Spain.

357. The Struggle for Kansas, 1854–1858. The struggle for Kansas had now begun. From the neighboring slave state of Missouri settlers armed with rifles poured over the border, hoping by force of numbers to make a slave territory of Kansas. They established the towns of Atchison, Leavenworth, and Lecompton. The Free-Soil forces were also thoroughly aroused. Societies were organized in Northern cities to send settlers to the territory, one of which — the New England Emigrant Aid Society — equipped a number of expeditions.

The towns of Lawrence and Topeka were founded by the Free-Soilers. These settlers came also with rifles. Both sides showed a grim determination to win the territory.

358. Civil War in Kansas. Violence reigned everywhere in "bleeding Kansas," and civil war virtually followed. Both sides were guilty of crimes of violence and bloodshed. The new town of Lawrence was burned by the slavery men, and John Brown made up a party and attacked a small settlement of pro-slavery squatters, murdering five of them. On the election (November, 1854) of a delegate to Congress the great struggle began. Armed bands of slavery men from Missouri roamed throughout the country taking possession of the polls. A slavery delegate was elected. Congress, however, refused, on the ground of fraud at the polls, to seat the delegate that had been elected.

Four months later (March, 1855) the election of members for the territorial government was to occur. This was the crisis of the struggle, as success for the slavery men meant a slave state of Kansas. The slavery forces won, and at a convention held at Lecompton slavery and a most stringent slave code were formally established.

The antislavery men held a convention at Topeka, declared the Lecompton convention an illegal body, made an antislavery constitution, and submitted it to a popular vote. As no slavery men voted, this constitution was adopted, and thus two governments were organized. This strife lasted until 1858, when the numbers of the free men were so great that the slavery men gave up the struggle, and three years later Kansas, under a free constitution, was admitted to the Union.

359. Perry's Expedition to Japan, 1853. One of the great events of Pierce's administration was the opening of commercial relations with Japan. At that time the only port open to the outside world was Nagasaki, and even here only the Dutch were allowed to land. In the summer of 1853 Commodore Matthew C. Perry anchored in the waters of Japan not far from

the present site of Yokohama, bearing letters to the government of Japan asking for a treaty and the opening of the ports. The Japanese received his letters and promised to consider the matter. Perry replied that he would return the following year for an answer. He sailed to China and at the appointed time returned to Japan, where his perseverance was rewarded. A treaty was signed (1854) by which certain ports were opened for trade with the United States. This was the beginning of Japan's wondrous development.

360. The Know-Nothings. The year 1854 was marked by the rise to power of the Know-Nothing, or Native American, party.[1] This was a secret, oath-bound organization that was based on hostility to foreigners and especially to Roman Catholics, native or foreign.

For some years immigration had been increasing with wonderful strides as a result of the development of ocean steam navigation, of the revolutions in Europe, — especially in Germany and Austria-Hungary, — and of the fearful famine in Ireland. American politics at this time were in a condition of unrest and turmoil. The leaders of the Know-Nothings took advantage of this condition to organize a bitter opposition to Catholics. A disgraceful period of rioting and bloodshed followed. The Papal Nuncio, who was visiting America at this time, was burned in effigy in Baltimore, and the militia was needed to quell the riots when he visited Cincinnati. A stone sent by the Pope for the Washington monument was destroyed. Catholic churches or convents were burned in Charlestown, Newark, New York, Bath, Philadelphia, and Louisville, while the homes of Catholics were destroyed in many cities. At Ellsworth, Maine, Father John Bapst, the Jesuit missionary, was tarred and feathered. It became necessary to entirely suspend public worship in the Catholic churches of Philadelphia.

[1] At the outset they conducted all their proceedings in secret. In answer to every question about themselves they answered, "I don't know," whence arose the name of Know-Nothings.

The Know-Nothings obtained their first political successes in the national election of 1854.[1]

In that year they carried Massachusetts and Delaware, polled one hundred and twenty-two thousand votes in New York, and elected seventy-five members of the national House of Representatives. In the following year they were victorious in Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Connecticut, Rhode Island, New York, and Kentucky. In the presidential campaign of 1856 they nominated Fillmore and carried only one state, Lord Baltimore's former colony, Maryland. After this crushing defeat their power began to wane, and they merged themselves with other political parties.

361. Election of Buchanan. As the time approached for the election of a president to succeed Pierce the old parties were radically changed. The support of the Compromise of 1850, the Fugitive Slave Law, and the Kansas-Nebraska Act had turned thousands of Northern Whigs against their party, and Webster and Clay were no longer alive to advance its fortunes. Many of the antislavery Democrats had resolved to leave their party because of the Kansas-Nebraska Act. The new Republican party held its first national convention at Philadelphia, in 1856. John C. Frémont was nominated for president. The Democrats nominated James Buchanan, who was elected.

SUMMARY

The leading events of Pierce's administration (1853–1857) were:
The Ostend Manifesto of 1854.
The Kansas-Nebraska Act of 1854.
The rise of the Republican party.
The struggle for Kansas (1854–1858).
Perry's expedition to Japan in 1853.
The Know-Nothing movement of 1854.

[1] The so-called A. P. A. (American Protective Association) about four decades later attempted to reëstablish a party on the earlier Know-Nothing platform. A similar movement has been the recent Guardians of Liberty organization.

Buchanan's Administration,[1] 1857–1861

362. The Dred Scott Decision, 1857. Two days after Buchanan's inauguration the United States Supreme Court rendered the famous Dred Scott decision. Dred Scott was a slave whose owner, an army surgeon, had taken him from Missouri to Illinois, a free state, where he resided four years. Later he was taken to Minnesota Territory, where slavery was forbidden under the Missouri Compromise. He returned with his master after a time to Missouri. Some years later Scott sued his owner for his freedom, claiming that his residence on free soil had made him a free man. His case reached the United States Supreme Court, which decided that Dred Scott, being a negro slave, was not a citizen and could not become one; that he could not therefore bring a suit in the United States courts; that his residence on free soil did not make him free;[2] that Congress could not prevent slave-owners from taking their slaves with them wherever they desired to go, as they would their cattle or other property; and, finally, that the Missouri Compromise was unconstitutional and therefore null and void, as it prohibited slavery in that part of the Louisiana Territory which lay north of 36° 30′ and consequently prevented slave-owners from carrying their property (slaves) into the territory. This decision opened all the territories of the United States to slavery and made Douglas's theory of popular sovereignty a farce. Great indignation arose throughout the North at the decision, while the South believed it had won a great victory, and two years later, in a commercial convention of nine Southern states at Vicksburg, the repeal of all laws, state or Federal, prohibiting the African slave trade was approved by a vote of forty to nineteen.

[1] James Buchanan was born in Pennsylvania in 1791. He served in Congress, was minister to Russia and England, and was Secretary of State. He was elected president in 1856 and died in 1868.

[2] After the decision of the Supreme Court, Dred Scott and his family were given their freedom by their owner.

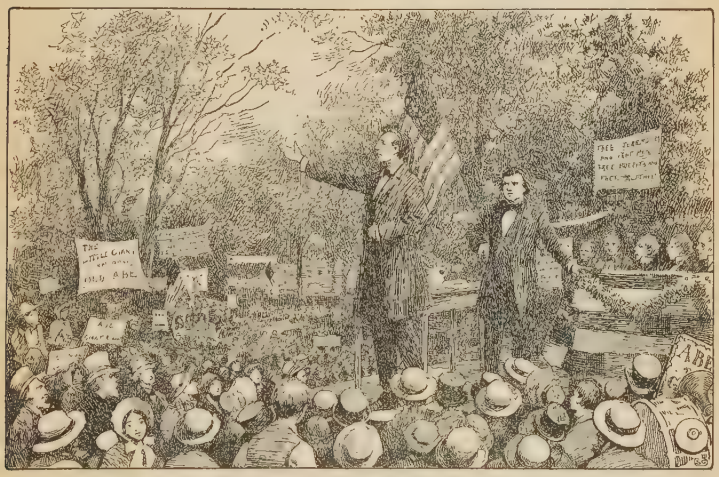
363. The Crisis of 1857. New States. Five months after Buchanan's inauguration an Ohio bank failed. It was the beginning of a widespread crisis, which in the main was occasioned by excessive investment in railroad building. Factories were closed, and men by thousands were thrown out of employment. For two years there was great suffering, but at last business again revived and the country became prosperous.

Gold was discovered in Colorado, which caused a great rush of population there. From the large influx of gold-seekers Denver grew quickly to be a city. Gold and silver were discovered in Nevada at this time. A most important discovery was that of oil near Titusville, Pennsylvania, in 1859, which resulted in the boring of thousands of oil wells in Pennsylvania, Ohio, West Virginia, and Indiana. From the refined petroleum is obtained kerosene and gasoline, which have had such an important influence on civilization. These discoveries were great factors in restoring prosperity to the Union.

At this time Minnesota was admitted to the Union (1858). Oregon became a state in 1859, with a constitution which excluded free negroes from the state.

364. The Lincoln-Douglas Debates, 1858. In 1858 the Democrats of Illinois renominated Douglas for United States senator. Abraham Lincoln was chosen by the Republicans as their candidate. He challenged Douglas to a series of seven joint debates. These debates were held in various parts of the state. Treating as they did of popular sovereignty, slavery, and the Dred Scott decision, they aroused the interest of the whole nation. Douglas upheld the doctrine of popular sovereignty, while Lincoln took the side of the Missouri Compromise and the Wilmot Proviso. Lincoln was defeated, that is, the Democrats won control of the state legislature, which insured the election of their candidate Douglas as senator; but the prominence which these debates gave Lincoln made him a prominent candidate for the nomination for the presidency in the ensuing Republican national convention.

365. John Brown's Raid, 1859. The bitterness of feeling between the slavery and antislavery men was intensified by the John Brown raid. John Brown, who, as we have seen, had taken an active part in the Kansas struggle, arranged a plan to seize the United States arsenal at Harpers Ferry and, with the aid of armed negroes, to establish a refuge in the mountains for runaway slaves. From this refuge he planned to wage war on



THE LINCOLN-DOUGLAS DEBATES

the South, using as soldiers the freed slaves. With nineteen followers he seized (October 16, 1859) the arsenal, expecting the slaves would rise and join him. His enterprise was a failure. The arsenal was quickly captured. Brown was taken prisoner. He was tried for murder and treason, found guilty, and hanged. Brown's raid had no support at the North beyond his personal friends, but it created a feeling of bitter resentment in the South, where it was believed to be the beginning of a general movement for the liberation of the slaves. This movement would be aided, they believed, by the national government if the Republicans should come into power.

366. Election of Lincoln. In 1861 Buchanan's term would expire, and a bitter struggle for the presidency now began. The Democratic convention met (April, 1860) at Charleston, South Carolina, but the Northern and Southern delegates could not agree on the slavery question, and the convention dissolved. Another convention, made up of Northern Democrats, met in Baltimore and nominated (June 18, 1860) Stephen A. Douglas for president.

The Southern delegates a few days later also met in Baltimore and nominated John C. Breckenridge of Kentucky. The remnants of the Whigs and the Know-Nothings nominated John Bell of Tennessee. The Republican convention at Chicago nominated Abraham Lincoln and demanded chiefly the admission of Kansas as a free state, the maintenance of freedom in the territories, and a railroad to the Pacific, while they rejected the principles of the Dred Scott decision. Lincoln[1] was elected.

367. The Beginnings of Secession. The election of Lincoln was soon followed by the secession of South Carolina. A convention passed (December 20, 1860) an ordinance of secession in the following words: "We, the people of the state of South Carolina, in convention assembled, do declare and ordain, . . . that the Union now subsisting between South Carolina and other states, under the name of the United States of America, is hereby dissolved."

South Carolina thus declared itself to be an independent nation. Events came to a crisis rapidly; Mississippi, Florida,

[1] Abraham Lincoln was born in Kentucky, February 12, 1809. His parents were very poor. He moved with them to Indiana and helped to cut the logs for their cabin. For this reason he was often called the "Rail Splitter." The Lincoln family later moved to Illinois. Taking advantage of what opportunities he had, he studied law and was admitted to the bar. He was called by his neighbors "Honest Abe." In 1846 he was elected to Congress. He was a candidate against Douglas for the United States Senate in 1858, but was defeated. Two years later he was elected president, with Hannibal Hamlin as vice president. In 1864 he was reëlected, with Andrew Johnson as vice president. He was assassinated April 14, 1865.

Louisiana, Alabama, Georgia, and Texas seceded, and delegates from six states gathered (February 4, 1861) at Montgomery, Alabama, formed a new government, drew up a provisional constitution,[1] and called themselves the Confederate States of America. Jefferson Davis[2] was elected president, and the Stars and Bars adopted as a flag. United States arsenals and forts had been seized, but Fort Sumter in Charleston harbor was held for the Union by Major Robert Anderson. As he was short of supplies, the Federal government dispatched a steamer, *The Star of the West*, with supplies for Anderson. The South Carolina batteries at once opened fire upon the vessel (January 9, 1861), and it was compelled to return.

JEFFERSON DAVIS

Senator Crittenden proposed at this time a compromise that all north of 36° 30′ should be free and all south of that line slave, that territories should decide whether to be free or slave, and that the Constitution should never be amended to abolish slavery in the states. The Compromise failed.

[1] The leading features in which this constitution differed from that of the United States were the "sovereign and independent character" of each state; the prohibition of a protective tariff; the recognition of negro slavery; the right of members of the cabinet to speak in Congress; and the ineligibility for reëlection of the president and vice president, to whom a six-year term of office was given.

[2] Jefferson Davis was born in Kentucky in 1808, and graduated from West Point in 1828. He fought in the Mexican War and served in both Houses of Congress. He withdrew from the Senate when his state, Mississippi, seceded. Alexander H. Stephens was a native of Georgia. He was serving his sixth term in Congress when he was elected vice president of the Confederacy.

SUMMARY

The leading events of Buchanan's administration (1857–1861) were:

The Dred Scott decision of 1857, which opened the free territories to slavery.

The crisis of 1857.

The discovery of gold, silver, and oil.

The admission of Minnesota (1858) and Oregon (1859) to the Union.

The Lincoln-Douglas debates of 1858.

John Brown's raid in 1859.

The beginnings of secession and the formation of the Southern Confederacy.

Dates to be remembered:

1846. War with Mexico.
1848. Discovery of gold in California.
1850. The Omnibus Bill.
1854. The Kansas-Nebraska Act.
1857. The Dred Scott decision.
1860. Election of Lincoln.
Secession of South Carolina.
Establishment of the Southern Confederacy.

Important dates for reference:

1834. McCormick develops the reaper.
1837. The electric telegraph invented.
1846. Discovery of ether.
1853. Gadsden Purchase.
1854. Rise of the Republican party.

REVIEW EXAMINATION

1. Show how the Missouri Compromise was violated by the Kansas-Nebraska Act of 1854.

2. State the causes and give in detail the results of the war with Mexico.

3. What was the Omnibus Bill? State its provisions. On this bill what was the attitude of Clay, Webster, Seward, and Calhoun?

4. Relate the circumstances attending the organization of Kansas and Nebraska as territories. Define squatter sovereignty. Who was the author of the idea?

5. Give an account of the Dred Scott decision, and show how it affected an important provision of the Missouri Compromise. State the effect of this decision on political parties in the North.

6. Describe the missions of California. What was the result of the discovery of gold in California?

7. What great discovery in 1846 brought epoch-making changes in surgery? What invention lightened the labor of women?

8. Show how the slavery question affected (*a*) the formation of the Constitution; (*b*) the admission of Missouri; (*c*) the annexation of Texas; (*d*) the admission of California; (*e*) the rise and fall of political parties.

9. Mention one American invention in each of the following fields: transportation, communication, domestic work, agriculture, giving (*a*) approximate date; (*b*) name of the inventor; (*c*) some account of the benefits derived.

10. Draw a map of the United States and on it show how the country was divided by the Kansas-Nebraska Act of 1854. Indicate (*a*) the slave states; (*b*) the free states; (*c*) the territory open to slavery by the principle of squatter sovereignty.

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CHAPTER XII

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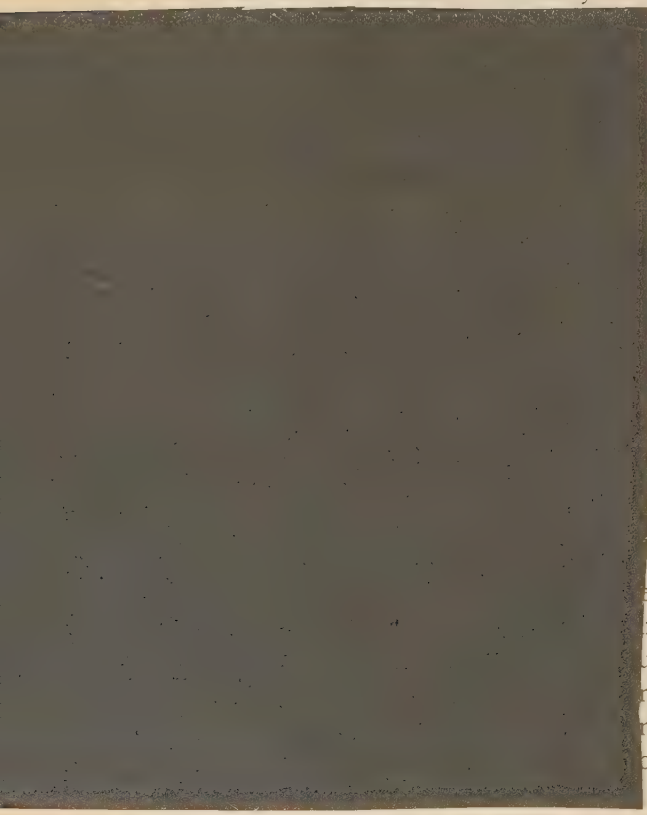
power of the nation "to hold, occupy, and possess the property and places belonging to the Government" of the United States.

369. Fall of Sumter. Lincoln determined to send men and supplies to Fort Sumter at once.[1] Hearing of this, General

[1] All the forts, arsenals, and public buildings in the South had fallen into the hands of the Confederates except Fort Sumter and Fort Pickens. Sumter fell, but Pickens was never captured during the war.

Beauregard immediately demanded the surrender of the fort. Major Anderson, who was in charge, refused to deliver it up, and before sunrise on April 12, 1861, the Confederate battery fired the first shot at Sumter. For thirty-four hours shot and

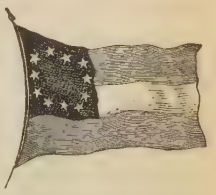


nderson, seeing uselessness of her delay, as he without food or der, surrendered fort (April 14) marched out honors of war. fearful Civil had begun.

70. The Strength Weakness of South. Let us consider the ources and ad- ntages that each e possessed at outbreak of the r. Of the thirty- ur states of the nion twenty-three mained loyal to the orth and eleven the South.

In the matter of population the South was at a great disadvantage. There were in the free states nineteen millions of people, in all the slave states twelve millions. As the slave states of Maryland, Kentucky, and Missouri, with three millions of people, remained in the Union, the North had twenty-two millions, while the seceding states had only nine millions, and three million of these were slaves. The South

had the advantage of fighting on smaller defensive lines and in a country with which they were thoroughly familiar. They were enthusiastically united because they felt they were fighting for their homes and against invasion. Accustomed to the use of firearms, they were skilled marksmen. They suffered great disadvantages because of their industrial condition. They had few manufactories or machine shops, few navy yards, and no seafaring population to draw from in manning any vessels they might build. Their coal and iron mines had been undeveloped, and almost every article of food or clothing was imported in exchange for cotton. Cotton was the foundation of the wealth of the South. By cutting off, through the blockade, the export of cotton the North dealt the South a vital blow. The negro slaves tilled the soil, while every white man went to the front. There was practically no reserve force, and the losses in battle told heavily, as the places of the men who had been killed and wounded could never be filled.



CONFEDERATE FLAG
(The Stars and Bars)

371. The Condition of the North. The North had a great advantage before the world in being in possession of the established government and the historic flag of the United States. It was waging a war for the integrity of its national life, although freedom and slavery were the real causes behind the struggle. It had a large population of free men, almost four times as many as the seceding states. This allowed it to continue uninterrupted its manufactories and to recruit constantly the armies in the field. It had numberless machine shops, foundries, gun factories, and shipyards, with a large supply of skilled machinists. Its merchant marine and fisheries had raised up a race of hardy sailors. It had numerous railroads to move the troops easily from point to point, and soon had gunboats to ply the great rivers and penetrate the heart of the South. It quickly secured vessels of all descriptions

to maintain an effective blockade. Both sides were mistaken in underrating their opponents. The North thought it would be a ninety days' affair. The South believed that the North would not and could not fight; that their mercantile life had unfitted them for soldiers; and that they would never be united in any policy that looked to the coercion of the South.

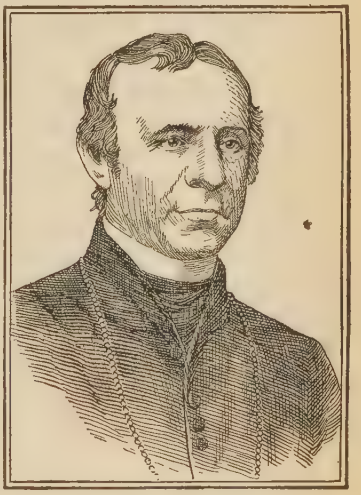
372. The Border States. European Hostility to the North. The first great problem was the future of the Border States. They were slaveholding states and contained naturally many Southern sympathizers. Possessing the Border States, the South could make the Ohio and the Potomac its northern boundary, a very effectual barrier. Of these Border States, Delaware at once declared for the Union; Virginia[1] joined the Confederacy; but Maryland, Kentucky, and Missouri, for a time doubtful, remained loyal to the Union. The area of the seceding states was equal to the combined area of Belgium, Holland, France, Germany, Spain, and Italy. The South had many sympathizers in England, and from Napoleon III of France it received secret support. The French emperor, at that time planning to establish an empire in Mexico, looked upon the success of the South as more favorable to his enterprise. Russia was favorable at all times to the Union. The Southern leaders believed that the manufacturing nations of Europe would interfere to break any blockade that might be established and to secure the cotton so essential to their existence. In this they were sorely disappointed.[2] President Lincoln sent Thurlow Weed to England and Archbishop Hughes of

[1] Forty-eight counties in the western part of Virginia had few slaves and were not in sympathy with the "tidewater" Virginians. When Virginia joined the Confederacy, these Western counties declared for the Union and asked for admission as the state of Kanawha. They were admitted in 1863 under the name of West Virginia.

[2] The declaration of Alexander H. Stephens at this time, making slavery virtually the corner stone of the Confederacy, may have tended to prevent the nations of Europe that had already abolished slavery from openly aiding the South. Stephens had earnestly opposed secession, but went with his native state of Georgia when it seceded.

New York to France to influence public opinion by presenting the Union cause from the standpoint of the North, and both rendered great service to the national government.

373. The Plan of the War. A glance at the map will show that the Southern Confederacy was divided in its physical features into three sections by the Alleghenies and the Mississippi. The plan adopted by the national government was: first, to blockade the entire Southern coast, thus cutting off all supplies and exports; second, to capture Richmond and the army of Virginia; third, to force the Union army like a wedge through the Southern lines between the Alleghenies and the Mississippi, and thereby dismember the Confederacy; and fourth, to regain control of the Mississippi, cutting off the great West and Southwest and attacking the Confederacy on its left flank. This would cut off a great source of supply of men and goods.



ARCHBISHOP HUGHES

Much to the disappointment of the United States, which maintained that the Southern states were merely in insurrection, Great Britain[1] acknowledged (May 13, 1861) the belligerent rights of the Confederacy by issuing a proclamation of neutrality forbidding Englishmen to take part in the war on either side. This proclamation did not acknowledge the independence of the Confederacy, but declared that war existed

[1] While England was opposed to slavery, it wished our cotton, and it disliked exceedingly the high Morrill tariff which had recently been enacted and which shut out English manufactured goods. With almost free trade in the Confederacy, England could buy cotton there and ship in manufactured goods, making it a very profitable arrangement.

between the sections. France quickly followed with a similar proclamation, and was followed by Spain, the Netherlands, and other nations of Europe.[1]

374. The Call to Arms. At the news of Sumter the mass of the people in the North, without regard to party, religion, or color, rose for the defense of the Union.[2] Throughout the South there was an equal outburst of patriotism for the stars and bars, as the new Southern flag was called. President Lincoln called (April 15, 1861) for seventy-five thousand troops, and three hundred thousand volunteers came to the front.

375. Battle of Bull Run, or Manassas Junction, July 21, 1861. The Confederate government moved from Montgomery to Richmond, and the cry throughout the North became, "On to Richmond!" General McDowell was ordered to attack the Confederates, under Beauregard, stationed at Bull Run,[3] or Manassas Junction, about thirty miles southwest of Washington. The battle was fought Sunday, July 21, 1861. At the outset the Union forces drove back the Confederates, but the latter were rallied by General T. J. (Stonewall) Jackson.[4] At the

[1] Another reason for the neutrality proclamation was given by the English statesman Lord John Russell, who wrote: "Upwards of five million free men have been for some time in open revolt against the president and Congress of the United States. It is not our practice to treat five millions of free men as pirates and to hang their sailors if they attempt to stop our merchantmen. But unless we meant to treat them as pirates and to hang them, we could not deny them belligerent rights." At this time England was ruled by the aristocracy, which looked with fear on the successful establishment of the democratic United States as a menace to their rule and privileges. They had opposed the extension of the Reform Act of 1832. The effect of the triumph of the North was seen in the immediate passage of a further reform act in 1867.

[2] Of the former presidents then living, Van Buren, Pierce, and Buchanan stood by the Union. Tyler joined the Confederacy when his native state Virginia seceded (April 17, 1861). The Democratic leader Stephen A. Douglas at once pledged his support and that of his followers to President Lincoln.

[3] *Run* means a small stream of running water.

[4] In the thick of the fight a Confederate general, pointing to Jackson, rallied his men, exclaiming, "There stands Jackson like a stone wall!" From that time he was known as Stonewall Jackson. He was born in Virginia (1824) graduated from West Point, and served for two years in the Mexican War.

critical moment fresh troops under General Joseph E. Johnston hurried from the Shenandoah valley, joined the Confederates, and struck the Union forces on the flank. The latter broke and fled, demoralized and panic-stricken, to the defenses of Washington. The defeat caused dismay throughout the North. There was great rejoicing in the South, and many Southerners, believing the war to be over, returned to their homes.

376. Appointment of McClellan. The War in Missouri. The defeat at Bull Run brought for the first time clearly before the North the crisis in its national life that it had to face. It now saw that the war would not be a ninety days' affair, and that the South would not only fight but fight valiantly. Congress voted two hundred and fifty million dollars and five hundred thousand men.[1] General George B. McClellan,[2] who had practically driven the Confederates out of western Virginia, was appointed general in chief, under the President, of the United States armies. In the West, Kansas had been admitted (January 29, 1861) and was strongly in favor of the Union. Missouri was held by the loyal citizens, who overthrew the state government, which was strongly in favor of the Confederacy.

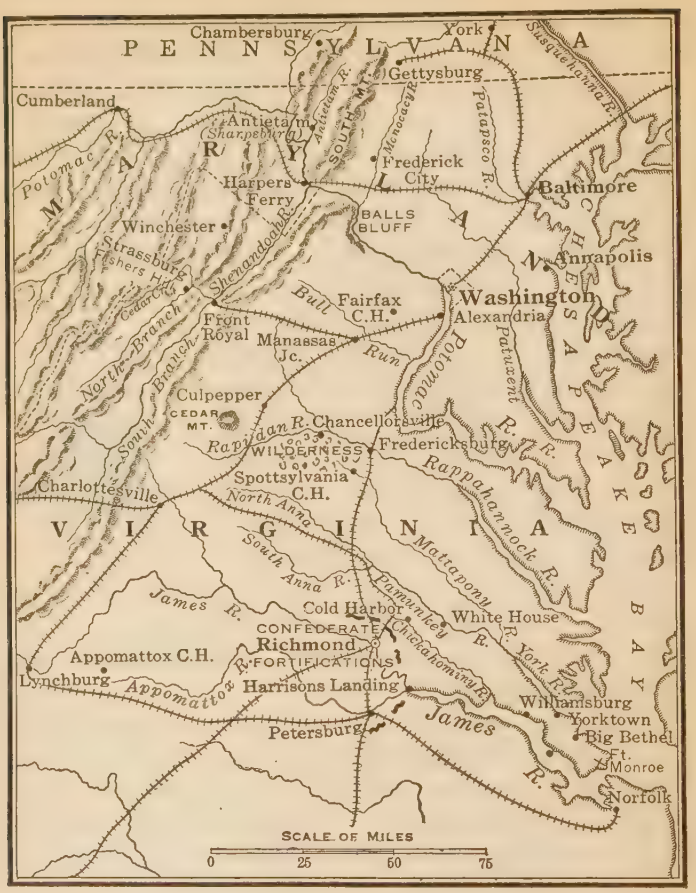
STONEWALL JACKSON

To alleviate as far as possible the horrors of war a Sanitary Commission was organized. In addition to this commission the Sisters of the various religious communities gave their services in the hospitals and on the firing line, winning for themselves the title of "Angels of the Battlefield."[3]

[1] As there was practically no money in the national treasury, Congress increased the duties on imports and placed taxes on liquors, spirits, tobacco, bank checks, on trades, professions, and, to the amount of three per cent, on incomes of more than eight hundred dollars per year.

[2] General George B. McClellan was born in Philadelphia in 1826, graduated from West Point, and served in the Mexican War.

[3] In 1918 Congress voted permission for a monument to be erected in Washington as a tribute to the Sisters who served on the battlefields of the Civil War.



THE WAR IN THE EAST

The Confederates were attacked (August 10, 1861) at Wilson's Creek by General Nathaniel Lyon, but he was defeated and killed. At Lexington on the Missouri the Confederates attacked Colonel James A. Mulligan, who held them at bay until he was finally overwhelmed. The Confederates now took a stand at Pea Ridge in southwestern Missouri, but were defeated (March 7, 1862). Missouri was now safely in the grasp of the Union.

377. The Blockade. One of the most difficult tasks before the Federal government was the blockading of the Southern coast. In April President Lincoln announced to the nations of the world that the coast from the Potomac to the Rio Grande was blockaded, and vessels of all nations were forbidden to go in or out. To enforce the blockade armed vessels were stationed along the entire coast. By May, 1862, the blockade was so effective that the entire Atlantic coast of the Confederacy was practically cut off from outside assistance. This measure was of great importance [1] in carrying on the war. It prevented the export of cotton and thereby reduced the revenues of the South; it rendered difficult the purchase of arms and munitions of war, — a vital blow, as the South had few gun factories or machine shops. To overcome the blockade fast vessels were built. They were called "blockade runners." They were mostly English, manned by English sailors, and made their headquarters at Nassau in the Bahamas.

378. The *Trent* Affair. In November, 1861, an event occurred which brought us to the verge of war with England. Mason and Slidell, two Confederate commissioners, bound for England and France, sailed from Havana for Europe on the British steamer *Trent*. They were sent to secure the aid of England and France for the Confederacy. Captain Wilkes, of a United States sloop of war, stopped and boarded the *Trent* and took off Mason and Slidell. Great indignation was expressed throughout England at the act, and war was imminent. President Lincoln disavowed the act, however, as the United States had always strenuously opposed the so-called "right of search." The commissioners were therefore placed upon another English warship and sent to England.[2]

[1] "It was the blockade rather than the ravages of the army that sapped the industrial strength of the Confederacy." — SCHWAB, "Confederate States of America," p. 236

[2] By her action in this matter England gave up forever her earlier doctrine of the "right of search." It was therefore a diplomatic victory for Secretary Seward, who managed the affair with great tact and ability.

379. The Privateers. Public opinion in England, especially among the aristocracy, or so-called "upper classes," in the early days of the Civil War was very hostile to the Federal government. The "middle" and "lower" classes were favorable to the Union. Many leading English statesmen[1] favored the Confederacy, Gladstone hailing the secession of the South as the birth of a new nation. Although England had abolished slavery throughout her own dominions, her attitude helped to maintain the institution in the Western world. One of the most injurious consequences of the indifference of the English government was the building of privateers in English shipyards. At the outbreak of the Civil War our merchant vessels were sailing every sea, bearing merchandise to every part of the world. To cripple this source of revenue and strength the Confederate government issued "letters of marque" to privateers, who thereupon went forth to destroy Northern vessels. The *Sumter*, under Captain Semmes, escaped the blockade (June, 1861), and for six months swept the seas. In the English shipyards the building of privateers was hurried by the Confederates. The *Florida* was launched at Liverpool, and the fate of the most famous of all, the *Alabama*, we shall see later.

SUMMARY

The battle of Bull Run was won by the Confederates.

The Union army was defeated at Wilson's Creek, but Missouri was held in the Union.

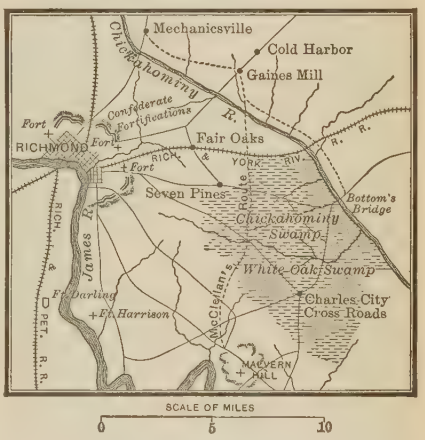
The blockade was established along the Southern seaboard and became very effective.

Mason and Slidell, Confederate commissioners to Europe, were taken (November 8) from the *Trent*, and England prepared for war. The Federal government acknowledged its error and returned the commissioners to an English warship.

[1] Of the men in English public life or distinguished in the world of letters, John Bright, Cobden, John Stuart Mill, Tennyson, W. E. Forster, and Sir Charles Lyell favored the Union cause. Palmerston, Gladstone, Grote, Dickens, Carlyle, and E. A. Freeman were unsympathetic or openly hostile to the North.

The War in 1862

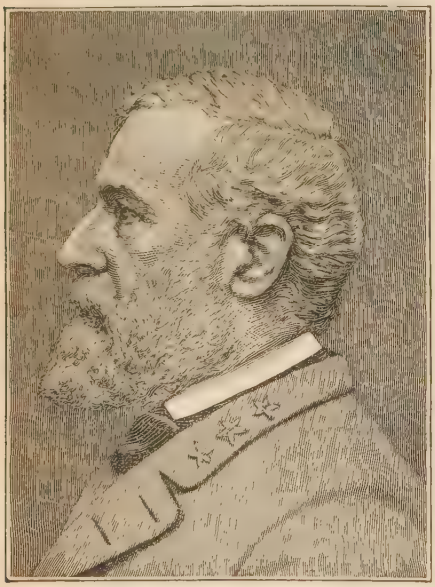
380. The Plan against Richmond. The plan of campaign at the opening of the year 1862 involved chiefly the capture of Richmond and the control of the Mississippi. To carry out the first part of the plan McClellan, with the Army of the Potomac, was directed to march across Virginia to Richmond. By this arrangement the Northern army would always be interposed between the Confederates and Washington. McClellan preferred to move up the James River. Finally, it was decided to station a small force under Banks and Frémont in the Shenandoah valley to prevent the Southern troops from sweeping through it into Washington. McDowell was ordered to march from Washington to Fredericksburg and thence to Richmond. McClellan was to sail up the York River to Yorktown, and marching up the peninsula, join McDowell and capture Richmond.



THE WAR IN VIRGINIA

381. The Peninsular Campaign. McClellan, who had spent many months drilling and organizing his troops, landed at Yorktown to begin his march up the peninsula formed by the York and the James rivers. Here he was confronted by the Confederates, who delayed the progress of the Union forces for a month and then drew back towards Richmond. At Williamsburg (May 4–5) the Confederates under General Joseph E. Johnston again held the Federals in check. The position of the Union army was a most unfortunate one. The

country was swampy, the rains had swollen the brooks into torrents, and progress was attended with great difficulty. At every step McClellan had to fight his way. With one part of his army on the southern side of the Chickahominy and the remainder on the northern side, McClellan awaited the arrival of McDowell, who was posted at Fredericksburg with forty thousand men to guard the road to the national capital. In the distance McClellan could hear the bells of Richmond and see the spires of the churches. As a result of the heavy rains the Chickahominy suddenly began to rise and widened into a lake. Johnston now fell upon the Union forces south of the river and virtually defeated them at Fair Oaks, or Seven Pines (May 31–June 1). In this battle General Joseph E. Johnston was severely wounded, and Robert E. Lee took command.[1]



GENERAL ROBERT E. LEE

In the meantime Stonewall Jackson suddenly appeared in the Shenandoah valley and demoralized the Federal forces, defeating successively Milroy and Banks. Washington was thrown into a panic. McDowell was immediately ordered by President Lincoln, against McClellan's protest, to head off

[1] To win the antislavery element in England, President Lincoln early in 1862 made a treaty with Great Britain to suppress the foreign slave trade on the coast of Africa.

Jackson in the Shenandoah valley. Jackson escaped by defeating Frémont and Shields. The withdrawal of McDowell was exactly what General Lee had hoped for. With Jackson now to aid him he at once attacked McClellan, forcing him to fall back to the James River. It required seven days to carry out this movement, the Union forces losing fifteen thousand men.[1] At the last fight, at Malvern Hill (July 1), Lee was repulsed with heavy loss. The campaign against Richmond was a failure.

382. Battle of Cedar Mountain. Second Battle of Bull Run, August 30, 1862. President Lincoln (July 2) issued a proclamation calling for three hundred thousand more volunteers. General Halleck was now in command of all the Union armies in the field. He ordered McClellan to leave the James, and taking his forces to the Potomac, to join them to the army under Pope. Lee, no longer fearing for Richmond, now hastened to attack Pope, who commanded the Union forces in northern Virginia. Jackson defeated Pope's right wing at Cedar Mountain. McClellan's troops now came up, and against the united force stationed on the old battlefield of Bull Run (August 30) Lee hurled his army. Pope was defeated and retreated toward Washington, resigning his command, which was again given to McClellan. It was feared Washington would fall into the hands of the Confederates.

383. Battle of Antietam, September 16–17, 1862. Lee now determined to invade the North and, crossing the Potomac, entered Maryland. Stonewall Jackson seized Harper's Ferry with its military stores. Twelve thousand men fell prisoners into his hands. McClellan hastened to head off Lee, and the forces met (September 16–17) at Antietam Creek near Sharpsburg. A bloody battle was fought, each side losing about twelve thousand men, killed and wounded. Although both

[1] The Seven Days' Battles were fought at Mechanicsville (June 26), Gaines's Mill (June 27), Savage Station (June 29), Glendale, or Frayser's Farm (June 30), and Malvern Hill (July 1). In these battles the Confederate loss was about twenty thousand men, killed and wounded

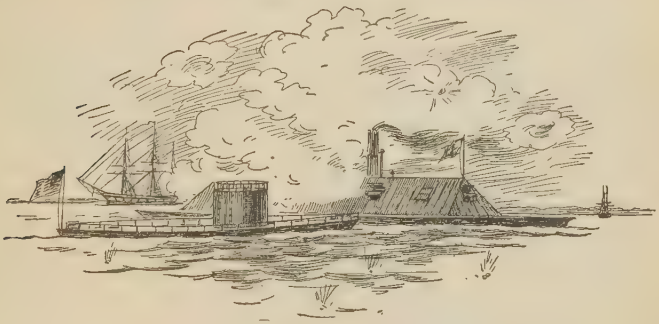
sides suffered equally, McClellan won a partial victory, as he stopped the advance of Lee, who now retired across the Potomac. McClellan's failure to follow up his victory by pursuing Lee displeased the government, and Burnside was appointed to succeed him.

384. Battle of Fredericksburg, December 13, 1862. Burnside now started for Richmond. He reached the Rappahannock and saw before him, on the heights of Fredericksburg, Lee posted in a commanding position. The Confederates were strongly intrenched on a hill called Marye's Heights, and Burnside ordered an attack (December 13). The troops crossed the river and charged over the level plain to the foot of the hill and up the steep height, while the Confederate batteries tore their ranks with shot and shell. Among the assailants was Meagher's Irish Brigade. "Six times," says Longstreet, "in the face of a withering fire, before which whole ranks were mowed down as corn before the sickle, did the Irish Brigade run up the hill — rush to inevitable death." The attack was a disastrous failure, over twelve thousand Union soldiers falling on the field. The Confederates lost about five thousand. Burnside retired across the Rappahannock and later yielded his command to Hooker.

385. The *Monitor* and the *Merrimac*, March 9, 1862. When the Union forces abandoned the Norfolk Navy Yard at the outbreak of the war, they sank a frigate called the *Merrimac*. The Confederates raised it, covered it with plates made from railroad iron, and named it the *Virginia*. She sailed out into Hampton Roads (March 8, 1862), and attacked and sank the *Cumberland*, whose shot and shell fell harmlessly on her sides. The *Congress* was next doomed, and the flames, lighting up the sky, told of her fate. The *Merrimac* now cast anchor in the channel for the night. The news of the destruction wrought by the *Merrimac* struck terror to the North. On this very night a strange-looking craft came into the harbor. It was the *Monitor*, designed by the Swedish engineer Ericsson. She

resembled, it was said, a cheese box on a raft. She was built of iron, one fifth of the size of the *Merrimac*. Her turret revolved, and she carried two eleven-inch guns.

The next morning (March 9) the *Merrimac* steamed out to complete her work of destruction, when the little *Monitor* appeared. The *Merrimac* tried in vain to run her down. A fierce battle ensued for four hours, when the *Monitor* withdrew to the shallow waters offshore. The *Merrimac*, somewhat damaged, thereupon returned to Norfolk. Neither vessel had



THE *MONITOR* AND THE *MERRIMAC*

been able to destroy the other, but the *Monitor* had saved the Union shipping from destruction.[1] This battle gave the death-blow to wooden warships and rendered necessary the entire rebuilding of the navies of the world.[2]

386. The War in the West. Capture of Fort Henry, February 6, 1862, and Fort Donelson, February 16, 1862. The Confederate line of defense stretched along the northern boundary of Tennessee from the Alleghenies to the Mississippi and was commanded by General Albert Sidney Johnston, one

[1] Neither of these vessels rendered much further service. The *Merrimac* was destroyed (May 11, 1862) by the Confederates when Norfolk fell, and the *Monitor* was lost in a gale off Hatteras.

[2] As early as 1858 France and England had built ironclads. From this time the building of wooden warships ceased.

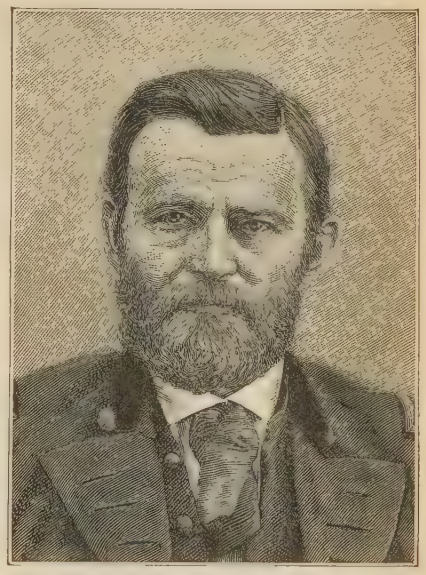
of the ablest of the Confederate generals. It was the plan of the North to break this line. A point of great importance was Cumberland Gap. To secure this, General George H. Thomas[1] attacked the Confederates at Mill Springs (January 19, 1862) and defeated them. The upper Cumberland was now lost to the South. To hold the two great rivers, the Cumberland and

THE WAR IN THE WEST

the Tennessee, was of the utmost importance to the South, as these waterways penetrated as far south as Mississippi, Alabama, and Georgia. A glance at the map will show that the two rivers almost join each other in northern Tennessee and Kentucky. To control these rivers two forts were erected, Fort Donelson on the Cumberland and Fort Henry on the Tennessee, and against these the Union forces were now directed with

[1] General George H. Thomas was born in Virginia in 1816 and graduated from West Point. His love for the Union was greater than his devotion to his native state. His commanding talents were of incomparable service to the Union cause

seventeen thousand men and seven gunboats. Grant and Foote moved up the Tennessee and quickly captured Fort Henry (February 6, 1862). The garrison escaped to Fort Donelson, where they were besieged by Grant and Commodore Foote. At daybreak, February 16, General Buckner asked for the terms of capitulation. Grant answered: "No terms except an unconditional and immediate surrender can be accepted. I propose to move immediately upon your works."[1] Buckner thereupon surrendered with fifteen thousand men.[2] As the Confederate line was now moved southward, Nashville was evacuated and practically all Tennessee was opened to the Federals. Andrew Johnson was appointed military governor, and the North rejoiced in its first great victory in the Civil War.



GENERAL U. S. GRANT

387. The Battle of Shiloh, or Pittsburg Landing, April 6–7, 1862. Grant now took his position on the Tennessee River at Pittsburg Landing, a few miles from Shiloh, to await reënforcements from Buell. Johnston, anxious to crush Grant before Buell should arrive, made a sudden attack at sunrise, Sunday, April 6. The Union soldiers, taken by complete surprise, were

[1] It was from this answer that Grant was afterwards called "Unconditional Surrender" Grant.

[2] "Judged by its moral and strategical results, the capture of Fort Donelson was one of the turning points of the war." — ROPES, "Civil War," Vol. II, p. 34

driven back toward the river, losing three thousand prisoners. Johnston was killed, and Beauregard assumed command. On the following day the battle was renewed. Buell's fresh troops now began to arrive, and late in the afternoon the Confederates fell back to Corinth. The loss of life was great, over ten thousand men being killed and wounded on each side. On the same day as the battle of Shiloh the Union fleet on the Mississippi captured Island Number 10. Fort Pillow fell June 5, and the great river was opened as far south as Memphis. The Union fleet at once attacked and completely defeated the Confederate ironclads here, and Memphis fell June 6. With the fall of Memphis the Mississippi was open to Vicksburg.

388. The Capture of New Orleans, April 25, 1862. In the meantime Farragut and Porter had been sent from Fort Monroe to capture New Orleans. This city, with its one hundred and seventy thousand inhabitants, its large workshops, and its commanding position at the mouth of the Mississippi, was invaluable to the South. It is about one hundred and ten miles from the Gulf and was defended by two strongly fortified posts, Fort Jackson and Fort St. Philip, about seventy-five miles below the city. Under heavy bombardment from his batteries Farragut fought his way through the obstructions across the river, passed the forts, and appeared (April 25, 1862) before the city of New Orleans, which surrendered. Farragut then sailed up to Baton Rouge and Natchez, both of which he captured. The only part of the Mississippi now held by the Confederates was the two-hundred-and-fifty-mile stretch between Vicksburg and Port Hudson.

389. Battles of Perryville and Murfreesboro. The Confederates now determined to break through the besieging line and invade the North. In October General Bragg left Chattanooga and hurried across Tennessee and Kentucky, threatening Louisville. Buell pursued him, and at Perryville (October 8, 1862) an indecisive battle was fought. Bragg retreated to Chattanooga, and Rosecrans superseded Buell.

Grant had sent reënforcements to Buell, and the Confederates, thinking to overwhelm Grant's left wing under Rosecrans, made an attack at Iuka (September 19) and at Corinth (October 3–4). The Confederates were driven back. Rosecrans was now appointed commander of the Army of the Cumberland to replace Buell. At Murfreesboro (or Stone's River) (December 31, 1862, and January 2, 1863) Bragg and Rosecrans met, and a fearful battle ensued. Bragg retreated, and the last attempt to recover Kentucky had been made.

390. The Railroads to the Pacific. While the war operations were of the most vital importance during the year 1862, Congress passed two measures that were to have a most enduring effect on our history. The first of these measures was the charter for the Union Pacific and for the Central Pacific Railroads. Under this act sixty-five million dollars was advanced to the railroad corporations for the construction of the railways. In four years, from 1862 to 1866, Congress gave away to these and other Western railroad companies seventy-four million, six hundred thousand acres of land which belonged to the people of the United States.

391. The Homestead Act. The second important measure was the famous Homestead Act of May 20, 1862. This is the greatest of our land laws. It gave free of charge, except for the slight cost of registering the land, a tract of one hundred and sixty acres of public land to any settler who would build a home and improve the land within a certain time. After five years of actual residence a patent was issued to the colonist, giving him the actual ownership of the land. Under the influence of this act twenty-seven million acres were claimed in seven years, hundreds of thousands of settlers secured homes in the West and built up the territories and new states of that section. The act also drew to our shores in enormous numbers colonists from Europe who desired to secure homes here, four hundred and sixty thousand arriving in one year (1873).

SUMMARY

The Peninsular Campaign, under McClellan, failed of success. Pope was defeated in his efforts to reach Richmond.

Lee attempted to invade the North and was repulsed at Antietam. Burnside was defeated at Fredericksburg.

Battle between the *Monitor* and the *Merrimac.*

In the West the Confederates lost Kentucky and Tennessee.

New Orleans fell. The entire Mississippi except between Vicksburg and Port Hudson was now controlled by the Union fleet. Of the seaboard towns only Mobile, Charleston, and Wilmington, North Carolina, remained under the Confederate flag.

Political action: (1) the charter for the Pacific Railroad was granted by Congress; (2) the Homestead Act, the greatest of our land acts, was passed.

The War in 1863

392. The Emancipation Proclamation. When the war began, it was not the intention of Lincoln nor of the North to attack the institution of slavery. The purpose of the North was the preservation of the Union. As the war progressed, however, the antislavery feeling in the Northern states became stronger day by day. The slaves were very valuable to the South, as they raised the crops necessary for the support of those at home as well as the soldiers in the field. They were also used extensively in war operations, digging trenches and raising fortifications. To destroy slavery, therefore, would greatly weaken the war strength of the South. There still remained the fear, also, that England might interfere in behalf of the South, her mills being closed for want of cotton, while tens of thousands of her operatives were almost starving. In consequence there was an increasing pressure upon the British government to intervene to break the blockade. This action would be favorable to the Confederacy. If slavery were now abolished, the issue would be very clearly drawn between the North, establishing freedom, and the South, maintaining slavery.

England would therefore find it difficult to justify her course in aiding the cause of slavery after she herself had abolished the institution throughout her dominions.[1]

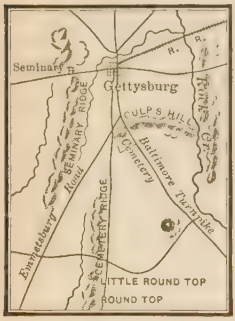
On September 22, 1862, President Lincoln issued a preliminary proclamation. As commander in chief of the armies he announced that as a "fit and necessary measure," if the seceded states did not return to the Union before January 1, 1863, "all persons held as slaves within any state . . . the people whereof shall then be in rebellion against the United States shall be then, thenceforward and forever, free." The seceded states not having returned, the Emancipation Proclamation was issued January 1, 1863, declaring the slaves in all territory held by the Confederates to be free. The proclamation, however, could be carried into effect only as the conquest of the Confederacy advanced.[2]

393. The Battle of Chancellorsville, May 1–4, 1863. Soon after the defeat of the Union forces at Fredericksburg, Burnside was removed and Hooker assumed command of the Army of the Potomac. Both Northern and Southern armies went into winter quarters. In the spring Hooker led his forces against Lee and Jackson, who were posted at Chancellorsville, but he was defeated (May 1–4). The victory was a costly one for the Confederates, as Stonewall Jackson accidentally received a fatal wound from his own men.

[1] Beginning in 1861 there had been a series of acts of Congress leading up to the Emancipation Proclamation: (1) slaves of disloyal masters, if used in military operations, were confiscated (August 6, 1861); (2) officers of the army were forbidden to return fugitive slaves (March 13, 1862); (3) slavery was abolished in the District of Columbia, payment being made to the owners (April 16, 1862); (4) slavery was prohibited in any of the territories of the United States (June 19, 1862); (5) all slaves of disloyal masters were confiscated whether used for military purposes or not (July 17, 1862).

[2] It should be carefully noted that the Emancipation Proclamation freed the slaves only in the seceded states or those parts of these states which had not been brought under Federal control. It did not affect the slaves in the loyal states nor in any territory controlled by the Federal armies, and it did not affect the institution of slavery. This was finally destroyed by the Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution, enacted in 1865.

394. Battle of Gettysburg, July 1–3, 1863. Confident now of victory, Lee hurried past Hooker, entered Maryland, and crossed the line into Pennsylvania. Philadelphia, Baltimore, and Washington were threatened,[1] and the people of the North were thoroughly alarmed. Hooker now resigned from his command, and Meade took charge of the army. The forces met at Gettysburg. Here a fertile valley is bordered by two parallel ridges that run north and south. The eastern, or Cemetery Ridge, was seized by the Union army, while the Confederates held the western, or Seminary Ridge. The first day's fighting was, on the whole, favorable to the Confederates. The Federals, however, with ever-increasing new forces, gradually seized the best positions. On the third day (July 3) Lee decided to strike, if possible, a decisive blow. About midday he opened on the Federal lines a terrific cannonade and after an hour and a half ordered a charge of Pickett's brigade, upon the center of the Union line, which was under the command of General Hancock. Onward across the open plain for a mile swept the gray column, while against them cannon and musket poured their deadly fire. Pickett's ranks were torn to pieces. Lee, seeing the hopelessness of trying to break the Union lines, now fell back and retreated across the Potomac.[2]



BATTLE OF GETTYSBURG

[1] On March 3, 1863, the Conscription Act had been passed, which gave to the Federal government authority to draft men from any section of the Union into the army. Up to this time the various states had been asked to furnish their quota, and they carried it out as they saw fit. As sufficient men had not been obtained, the government decided to force men into the service by drafting them. Opposition to the draft resulted in riots in New York City (July 13–16, 1863), which were finally quelled by the Federal troops after considerable bloodshed and the destruction of millions of dollars' worth of property.

[2] To carry on the war President Lincoln had taken measures which it was maintained by many were contrary to the Constitution. To those in the North who opposed these measures was given the name "Copperheads."

395. The Fall of Vicksburg, July 4, 1863. On the following day (July 4) an irreparable loss came to the Southern cause in the fall of Vicksburg. Up to this time Vicksburg and Port Hudson alone prevented Federal control of the Mississippi. Between these points the Red River entered the Mississippi, and through it the great states of Louisiana, Texas, and Arkansas poured supplies into the Confederacy. Grant had determined to open the Mississippi, but Vicksburg was heavily fortified on a bluff two hundred feet above the river and was deemed impregnable. General Pemberton commanded the forces in defense of the town. Grant dropped down on the west side of the river and recrossed below Vicksburg. At Port Gibson he defeated the Southern forces (May 1) and then hastened to head off General Joseph E. Johnston, who was marching to the aid of Vicksburg. The armies met at Jackson, Mississippi, and Johnston was defeated (May 14). Pemberton's forces were now besieged in Vicksburg. For seven weeks the besiegers shelled the doomed city. Cut off from food and ammunition, Pemberton at last surrendered (July 4). Port Hudson was now helpless and surrendered four days later. The Union forces now controlled the entire Mississippi River. Texas, Louisiana, and Arkansas were virtually cut off from the Confederacy. The great supply of foodstuffs from these rich states now largely ceased, and necessary military supplies could no longer be brought from Mexico.

396. Battle of Chickamauga, September 19-20. In the autumn of this year Rosecrans forced Bragg to abandon Chattanooga. Receiving reënforcements, however, under Longstreet, Buckner, and Johnston, Bragg turned on Rosecrans at the valley of the Chickamauga, where a fearful battle was fought September 19 and 20. The Confederates defeated the Union forces, driving the right wing from the field; but the left, under General Thomas, from this day called the "Rock of Chickamauga," held its ground. The Union army was saved and fell back to Chattanooga.

397. Battle of Chattanooga, November 24-25. Bragg, confident of victory, sent Longstreet against Burnside at Knoxville, but he was repulsed. Bragg now besieged Rosecrans in Chattanooga, taking his position on Missionary Ridge and Lookout Mountain, cutting off the Union source of supplies by destroying the railroad which connected Chattanooga with Nashville. The Federal army was in a most dangerous position. Rosecrans was now relieved of his command. Thomas was given charge of the Army of the Cumberland. General Grant was appointed to the command of all the armies west of the Alleghenies. Sherman's forces were brought from Memphis and Vicksburg. Hooker arrived with fresh troops from Virginia. The Union troops charged (November 24) the heights of Lookout Mountain, where Bragg's forces were posted. The clouds had settled over the mountain, and hence the engagement is called the "Battle above the Clouds." The Confederate forces on Missionary Ridge were also attacked (November 25), the Federal soldiers sweeping up the heights and carrying all before them. Bragg was defeated and fell back to Dalton, Georgia, to protect, if possible, the city of Atlanta. Sheridan pursued him and captured thousands of prisoners as well as artillery and munitions of war. Joseph E. Johnston now assumed command of the Confederates in the West.

SUMMARY

The Emancipation Proclamation was issued by President Lincoln.

The invasion of Virginia under Hooker was repelled (May 1–4, 1863) at Chancellorsville.

Lee invaded the North and was defeated (July 1–3, 1863) at Gettysburg, one of the decisive battles of the war.

Bragg defeated the Union army at Chickamauga, but was later routed by Grant at Chattanooga.

Vicksburg fell, and the entire Mississippi passed into the hands of the Union forces.

The War in 1864

398. Sherman takes Atlanta. The Confederates had now only two large armies in the field, one under Lee in Virginia, the other under Johnston in Georgia. Grant was appointed lieutenant general in command of all the armies of the United States. He now determined to push without ceasing the military operations. While he attacked Lee, Sherman was to attack Johnston, thereby preventing the two Confederate forces from uniting at any time to help each other. On May 6 Sherman began his march. Johnston, who led the Confederate forces, slowly fell back before him, burning bridges, fighting, and bearing off all the provisions. He met Sherman at Resaca, Dallas, and Kenesaw Mountain, but did not risk a general engagement. Sherman on advancing was compelled to leave parts of his army to guard his base of supplies from Nashville, three hundred miles away. Johnston's retreat was cleverly planned, but Jefferson Davis did not believe in the policy of constant retreat and removed Johnston, appointing Hood in his place. Hood at once attacked Sherman and was repulsed with heavy loss. Sherman swung around to the rear of Atlanta, and Hood was compelled to withdraw. Atlanta with its vast military stores fell into Sherman's hands (September 2).

GENERAL W. T. SHERMAN

399. Admission of Nevada. Besides the military operations, other developments were taking place in our country. Nevada was admitted to the Union in 1864.

In the same year a charter was granted to the Northern Pacific Railroad to build a line from Lake Superior to Puget Sound. The company was given forty-seven million acres of public land.

400. The Battle of Franklin. Hoping to draw Sherman again into Tennessee, Hood marched northwestward. Sherman followed for a short distance and then returned. Hood, however, pushed on and met a division of the Union army under Schofield at Franklin (November 30, 1864), where a stubbornly contested battle was fought. The Union army under Thomas was now intrenched at Nashville, where it was besieged by Hood. As soon as large reënforcements of new troops arrived, Thomas attacked and destroyed Hood's army (December 15–16, 1864).

401. Sherman's March to the Sea. On November 15, 1864, Sherman started on his famous march to the sea, three hundred miles distant. The telegraph wires to the North had been cut and the depots and supplies of Atlanta burned. With sixty-two thousand veteran troops Sherman marched forward. His army swept through the country, cutting a swath sixty miles wide. Everything of use to the Confederacy was seized. Railroads were torn up, and the rails heated and bent; bridges and public property were destroyed. There was no force to oppose the invading column, which early in December approached Savannah. With the aid of the blockading fleet Sherman stormed Fort McAllister, which guarded Savannah, and Savannah fell. Sherman sent a telegram to President Lincoln (December 22, 1864), presenting "as a Christmas gift the city of Savannah, with one hundred and fifty heavy guns and plenty of ammunition."

402. The Fate of the *Alabama*. Fall of Mobile. One of the vessels fitted out in England against the protests of the United States government was the *Alabama*. Handled with great skill by Captain Raphael Semmes, and being a swift vessel, she did enormous damage to Northern shipping, no less than sixty-three

merchantmen falling into her hands. The United States warship *Kearsarge* met her (June 19, 1864) off Cherbourg, France. In the battle that ensued the *Alabama* was sunk, her officers escaping on an English yacht. On August 5, 1864, Farragut, with his fleet of four monitors and twenty-one wooden ships, attacked the Confederate forts and warships in Mobile Bay. He compelled the forts to surrender, and destroyed the warships, thus closing the most important seaport still remaining open to the South.

403. Grant attacks Lee. Battles of the Wilderness, May–June, 1864. Let us now see what Grant was doing in the North. According to the plan arranged with Sherman, Grant's force was to move against Richmond the same day that Sherman started towards the sea. Grant crossed the Rapidan (May 4) and entered a desolate region known as the "Wilderness," a tract of country covered with scrubby pines and thick undergrowth (see map, p. 360). Here Lee attacked him. The fighting was incessant. In two months (May–June), in the battles of the Wilderness, Spottsylvania Court House, and Cold Harbor, Grant lost almost fifty-five thousand men. Lee's lines were still unbroken, however, and Grant abandoned the direct attack. He now marched his forces around Richmond, across the James, and attacked Petersburg.

404. Sheridan defeats Early. In July General Jubal Early started with his cavalry to make an attack on Washington. He came within sight of the city and then turned into the Shenandoah Valley. Sheridan was sent to attack him. They met at Winchester (September 19), and Early was driven back. On October 19 Sheridan was in Winchester and heard the reverberation of heavy cannonading. Mounting his horse, he hurried to the scene of battle. He arrived just in time to rally his troops that had been surprised and routed by Early, who was now driven out of the valley. Grant ordered Sheridan to completely lay waste the Shenandoah Valley. Everything that could be of any use to the Confederates was gathered up

or destroyed. It was as desolate as if a wave of flame had swept down the beautiful Valley. "If a crow wishes to fly down the Shenandoah Valley, he must carry his provisions with him," Sheridan is said to have remarked.

405. Grant before Petersburg. In the meantime Grant was besieging Petersburg, twenty miles south of Richmond. Here Lee was intrenched with fifty-four thousand men. As a part of the defenses of Richmond, Petersburg was of the utmost importance. Grant tried to storm it, but in vain. A mine was therefore secretly dug under the Confederate fortifications. It was exploded (July 30), and the Federals, rushing forward to enter the city, were repulsed with fearful loss. Grant now fell upon the Weldon Railroad, by which supplies entered Richmond from the South. Fierce fighting ensued, but Grant held it firmly.

406. Reëlection of President Lincoln. In the fall of 1864 the Republicans, joined by all in favor of prosecuting the war, renominated Abraham Lincoln for president on the Union ticket. Andrew Johnson of Tennessee, who had taken an active part in the reconstruction of that state for the Union, was nominated for vice president. The Democrats nominated General George B. McClellan for president. McClellan carried only the states of New Jersey, Delaware, and Kentucky. Eleven states that had seceded did not vote. Lincoln was reëlected by a large majority of the electoral votes.

SUMMARY

Sherman drove Johnston before him, defeated Hood, and took Atlanta. He then began his march to the sea, capturing Savannah.

Thomas defeated Hood's army before Nashville.

Grant began his march through the Wilderness, fighting constantly, but gradually drawing in the lines around Richmond.

The *Alabama* fought the *Kearsarge* off Cherbourg, and was destroyed.

President Lincoln was reëlected, with Andrew Johnson for vice president.

The War in 1865

407. Sherman marches Northward. One month after the capture of Savannah Sherman began his northward march across the state of South Carolina. Columbia, the capital, fell into his hands and was burned. Charleston was abandoned, thus closing the last seaport to the South.

Johnston had been again placed in command and tried to block Sherman's onward march. After entering the state of North Carolina Sherman met Johnston at Goldsboro.

The end of the Confederacy was now at hand. The Federal government held every seaport. Grant, Sherman, and Sheridan were drawing closer and closer to Richmond. The Union ranks were being filled up daily with fresh troops, while the Southern armies could not replace the men that had fallen.

408. Fall of Richmond. Lee's Surrender, April 9, 1865. Sheridan had now come east from the Shenandoah Valley. He destroyed the canals and railroads that brought supplies to Lee's army. Lee in lengthening his line to defend his outworks weakened it to such an extent that Grant broke through the intrenchments. On April 2 Lee sent word to Jefferson Davis that Richmond and Petersburg must be abandoned, and on April 3 the Federal troops entered Richmond. Lee fled westward, hoping to join his forces with Johnston's, but Sheridan outmarched him and planted his troops across the route. Lee, seeing his position was hopeless, surrendered to General Grant his army of twenty-eight thousand men at Appomattox Court House (April 9). The most liberal terms of surrender were given. Lee was not asked to give up his sword, nor his men their horses. "They will need them for the spring plowing," remarked Grant. As Lee's soldiers were on the point of starvation, twenty-five thousand rations were issued to them. On April 26 Johnston surrendered to Sherman. Jefferson Davis, with his cabinet, fled southward on the fall of Richmond, but

was captured (May 10) at Irwinville, Georgia. He was confined at Fort Monroe for two years and then released on bail. He was never afterwards disturbed.

409. Cost of the War. Results of the War. It is probable that the war cost the country the lives of one million men. The debt of the nation rose to nearly three billion dollars, to which must be added the debts incurred by states and municipalities, the amount paid for pensions, and the loss of property and wages. The war settled forever two great questions. The first was the slavery question, for the Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution, adopted December, 1865, abolished slavery. The second great question was that of secession. No state thereafter can claim the right to secede from the Union. The war, frightful as was the cost, made us a nation, "an indestructible Union composed of indestructible states."

410. Assassination of President Lincoln. On March 4, 1865, President Lincoln was inaugurated for the second time. In his inaugural he hoped for peace, "with malice toward none, with charity for all." Peace soon came, but the joy of the nation at the return of peace was suddenly turned into mourning. On the night of April 14, 1865, President Lincoln, while in his box at Ford's Theater in Washington, was shot in the head by an actor named John Wilkes Booth. The assassin leaped from the box to the stage, shouting "Sic semper tyrannis!"[1] and although his leg was broken in jumping, he escaped to Virginia, where he was later shot in a barn.[2] President Lincoln never regained consciousness after the fatal shot and died the next morning. Secretary Seward was stabbed while on a sick bed by a man who forced his way into the room. The wounds were not fatal, however.

[1] *Sic semper tyrannis* (Ever thus to tyrants) is the motto of the state of Virginia.

[2] A court-martial sentenced four persons to death for assisting in the plot to assassinate the President, and they were later executed.

CHART OF CIVIL WAR PERIOD

1860	Secession of South Carolina (Dec. 20)
1861	Secession of Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, Texas, Virginia, Arkansas, Tennessee, and North Carolina
	Kansas admitted (Jan. 29)
	Beginning of blockade
	Formation of the Confederate States of America (Feb. 4)
	Fall of Sumter (April 14)
	Battle of Bull Run, or Manassas Junction (July 21)
	Battle of Wilson's Creek (Aug. 10)
	Battle of Lexington, Mo. (Sept. 20)
	Trent affair (Nov.)
1862	Fall of Fort Henry (Feb. 6) and Fort Donelson (Feb. 16)
	Monitor and *Merrimac* (March 9)
	Battle of Shiloh (April 6–7)
	Capture of Island Number 10 (April 7)
	Surrender of New Orleans (April 25)
	Homestead Act (May 20)
	Seven days before Richmond (June 26–July 1)
	Second Battle of Bull Run (Aug. 30)
	Battle of Antietam (Sept. 17)
	Battle of Iuka (Sept. 19)
	Battle of Corinth (Oct. 3–4)
	Battle of Fredericksburg (Dec. 13)
	Battle of Murfreesboro (Dec. 31)
1863	Emancipation Proclamation (Jan. 1)
	Battle of Chancellorsville (May 2–3)
	West Virginia admitted (June 19)
	Battle of Gettysburg (July 1–3)
	Surrender of Vicksburg (July 4)
	Port Hudson surrendered (July 8)
	Draft riots in New York City (July 13–16)
	Mississippi opened its entire length to Federals
	Battle of Chickamauga (Sept. 19–20)
	Battle of Chattanooga (Nov. 24–25)
1864	Grant made general in chief of United States armies (March 3)
	Battles of the Wilderness (May 4–June 3)
	Sherman begins march to sea (May)
	Alabama sunk (June 19)
	Farragut enters Mobile Bay (Aug. 5)
	Capture of Atlanta (Sept. 2)
	Battle of Winchester (Sept. 19)
	Battle of Cedar Creek (Oct. 19)
	Nevada admitted to Union (Oct. 31)
	Battle of Franklin (Nov. 30)
	Battle of Nashville (Dec. 15–16)
	Fall of Savannah (Dec. 21)
1865	Capture of Petersburg (April 2)
	Fall of Richmond (April 3)
	Surrender of Lee (April 9)
	President Lincoln assassinated (April 14)
	Johnston surrenders (April 26)

REVIEW EXAMINATION

1. Copy the following and after each one write the name of the person to whom it refers: (*a*) the Father of His Country; (*b*) the Great Pacificator; (*c*) the Sage of Monticello; (*d*) the Expounder of the Constitution; (*e*) Old Rough and Ready; (*f*) Old Hickory; (*g*) Poor Richard; (*h*) Old Man Eloquent; (*i*) Honest Abe.

2. Name: (*a*) the states of the Southern Confederacy; (*b*) the slave states that did not secede.

3. Name three important battles of the Civil War, and tell why each is important.

4. Define or explain: (*a*) blockade runner; (*b*) contraband of war; (*c*) draft; (*d*) Copperhead; (*e*) "Cotton is king"; (*f*) *Trent* affair.

5. Why did not President Lincoln abolish slavery at the beginning of the Civil War?

6. Write on two of the following: (*a*) geographic divisions of the area of the Southern Confederacy; (*b*) the effect of the geographic divisions of the Confederacy on the campaigns of the Civil War; (*c*) why Virginia became the great battle ground of the Civil War.

7. Mark on a map the following strategic points in the Civil War: Vicksburg, Chattanooga, Mobile, Richmond, Gettysburg, the Shenandoah Valley, Appomattox.

8. Write on two of the following topics concerning the Civil War: (*a*) organization of the Confederate States; (*b*) relative condition of Northern and Southern states as to readiness for war; (*c*) effects of the blockade of the Southern ports; (*d*) importance of Sherman's march to the sea.

9. Describe the following causes leading to the Civil War: (*a*) fugitive-slave law; (*b*) Dred Scott decision; (*c*) complaints of the South; (*d*) complaints of the North; (*e*) the Free-Soil party.

10. Name three noted Union generals and three Confederate generals. Mention a battle in which each was engaged.

11. What two great questions were settled by the Civil War? What effect has the settlement of these questions had on the growth and prosperity of this country?

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CHAPTER XIII

"The development of the original thirteen states into the present Union, extending from the Atlantic to the Pacific and from Mexico to Canada, remains one of the most marvelous achievements of human history."

THE PERIOD OF REUNION

Andrew Johnson's Administration, 1865–1869

411. Accession of Andrew Johnson. Review of the Troops. On the death of President Lincoln, Andrew Johnson[1] took the oath of office as president of the United States. On May 23–24 the armies of Grant and Sherman, a column thirty miles long, were reviewed by President Johnson and his cabinet. These soldiers, to the number of almost one million, at once returned to the quiet pursuits of civil life.

An amnesty proclamation was issued by President Johnson (May 29, 1865), offering pardon to all former Confederates, except certain classes, on condition of their taking an oath to support the Constitution of the United States and to abide by the laws and proclamations made regarding slaves.

412. The Thirteenth Amendment. The Emancipation Proclamation of January 1, 1863, had declared the slaves to be free in such parts of the country as were in the control of the Confederates and had not been recovered by the Union forces.

[1] Andrew Johnson was born in North Carolina in 1808. He was too poor to receive an education and became a tailor. His wife, however, instructed him, and he rose gradually to distinction. He was elected congressman in 1843 and ten years later governor of Tennessee. He was United States senator and opposed secession so strongly that he was appointed military governor of his adopted state in 1862. He was elected vice president in 1864 and succeeded to the presidency on the death of President Lincoln. In 1875 he was elected United States senator. He died July 31, 1875.

It did not, however, destroy slavery, and slaves could again be purchased. Moreover, some of the slave states had never left the Union,[1] and hence the proclamation did not apply to them at all. To abolish slavery everywhere in the Union, the Thirteenth Amendment was adopted December 18, 1865.

413. Civil War in Mexico. While these vital questions were occupying the people of the United States, Mexico was in the throes of civil war. Napoleon III of France thought to take advantage of this condition and to seize Mexico while the United States was occupied with the Civil War. French armies landed and overran Mexico. In 1864 the French set up Maximilian, an Austrian prince, as emperor. Our government protested against this act as a violation of the Monroe Doctrine, and after the end of the Civil War General Sheridan was sent with fifty thousand troops to the Mexican border. The French armies were at once withdrawn, and Maximilian fell into the hands of the Mexicans and was shot (1867). The Mexican Republic was thereupon reëstablished.

ANDREW JOHNSON

414. Condition of the South. The South was at this time in a most demoralized condition. War had spread ruin far and wide; there were practically no state governments, nor revenue collectors, nor courts, and no mail service. President Johnson sought to bring order out of chaos by establishing at once all the Federal offices and courts. He also raised the blockade from the Southern ports. The gravest question that faced him was that of reconstruction.

[1] Maryland, Delaware, West Virginia, Kentucky, and Missouri.

415. Plans for Reconstruction. President Lincoln had maintained that none of the states had legally left the Union. He was ready to receive them back into the Union if even a small number of loyal citizens should form state governments, and on this basis Tennessee, Arkansas, and Louisiana were recognized by President Lincoln. President Johnson on taking office sought to follow in general President Lincoln's plan. Believing the power of reconstructing the states rested in the president rather than in Congress, President Johnson appointed a governor over each of the seceded states and allowed a convention to be called in each state. These conventions repealed the ordinances of secession and agreed never to pay the debt contracted by the Confederacy. They also abolished slavery and accepted the Thirteenth Amendment. State officers and senators and representatives to Congress were elected.

416. The Civil Rights Act, April 9, 1866. When Congress assembled in December, 1865, it refused to recognize President Johnson's plan of reconstruction, as it claimed that it alone had power to reconstruct the states. It denied admission to the representatives and senators that had been elected by the reconstructed states of the South. Congress insisted that the seceded states should not be allowed to return to the Union until the negro had been secured in his rights. What led Congress to this view was the fact that certain Southern states had passed labor laws which Congress feared would allow the negro to be placed in practical slavery again. By the new state constitutions of the South it was provided that only white men could vote or hold office. Congress passed therefore the Civil Rights Act, which gave to the negro the rights of a citizen of the United States with military protection for those rights. It also gave him authority to sue in the Federal courts. The act, however, did not make him a citizen of any state, nor did it give him the right to vote. President Johnson believed the South would deal fairly with the "freedmen," as the negroes

were now called, and vetoed the act. It was passed over his veto and became a law (April 9, 1866). Congress and the President were now in open antagonism.

417. The Fourteenth Amendment. To make permanent in the national Constitution the provisions of the Civil Rights Act, Congress proposed (June, 1866) the Fourteenth Amendment. This amendment gave citizenship to the negro; forbade, except under certain conditions, the Confederate leaders to hold office; guaranteed the validity of the debt of the United States and forbade the payment of the debts of the Confederacy; and provided that the refusal of any state to grant the franchise to any of its citizens would result in cutting down its representation in Congress. This amendment was ratified in 1868.

418. The Freedmen's Bureau Act. Congress now passed the Second Freedmen's Bureau Act, as the first had expired by limitation. This act gave military protection to the negroes, and to the whites of the South who had opposed secession. The act planned to place the freed negroes on the abandoned or confiscated lands of the South and to provide for a limited amount of education. The President vetoed the bill and it was passed over his veto (July 16, 1866).

419. The Reconstruction Acts, 1867. The strife between the President and Congress rapidly became very bitter. As the Republican party had two thirds majority of each house of Congress, it could enact legislation regardless of the President's wishes. In 1867 it passed the Reconstruction Acts over the President's veto. These acts provided for the military government of the ten seceded states, including even Louisiana and Arkansas, which had been reconstructed by President Lincoln and President Johnson. As Tennessee had complied with the requirements of Congress, it had been readmitted (1866) to the Union. Each of the seceded states was now compelled to make a new constitution. It was required that this constitution should grant the right to vote to the negro, should repudiate the Confederate debt, should acknowledge the validity of the Union

debt, should renounce all claims for the emancipation of the slaves, and should ratify the Fourteenth Amendment. At first all the Southern states rejected this amendment, but finally North and South Carolina, Florida, Alabama, Louisiana, and Arkansas accepted these terms and were readmitted (1868).[1] Mississippi, Texas, and Virginia refused to accept these terms, but, with Georgia, they did so in 1870, and were thereupon admitted.

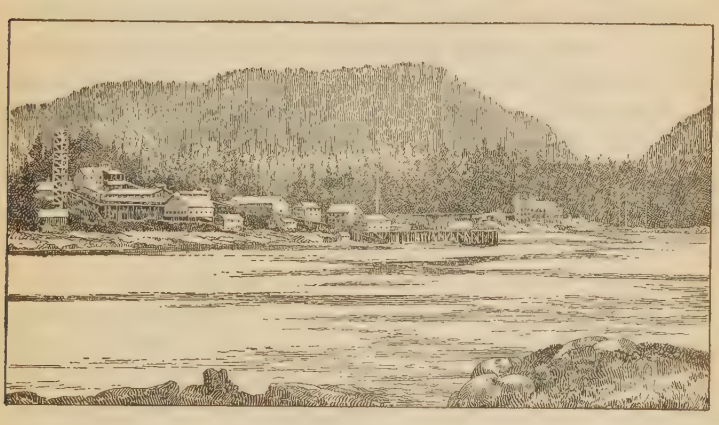
420. The Carpetbaggers. Ku-Klux Klan. In the unsettled conditions in many of these states unprincipled men from the North joined with the illiterate negro voters and secured control of political affairs, setting up in many cases governments that were a disgrace to republican institutions. Enormous debts were contracted, and money was spent lavishly and corruptly. Many of these men came to the South with practically nothing except a valise, or carpetbag as it was called. Hence the name "carpetbaggers" was applied to them. The Southern whites who aided or sympathized with the carpetbaggers were called "scalawags."

To overcome the negro rule a secret society was formed called the Ku-Klux Klan. By making use of the negro's instinctive fear of ghosts the Klan, dressed in white, at times with hideous masks, moved by night silently from place to place, using if necessary the harshest measures to strike terror into the negro.

421. The Tenure of Office Act. To decrease the power of the President Congress now passed the Tenure of Office Act. As the consent of the Senate was necessary for the appointment of certain officials, this act required the same consent for their removal. President Johnson declared the act to be unconstitutional and vetoed it, but it was repassed over his veto. Later, disregarding the Tenure of Office Act, President Johnson removed Stanton, Secretary of War, whom he cordially disliked. The Senate refused its consent to the removal, but the President would not reinstate Stanton.

[1] In 1867 Nebraska had been admitted to the Union as the thirty-seventh state.

422. Impeachment of President Johnson. Congress was now under the control of Thaddeus Stevens and the Radicals [1] and consequently impeached Johnson, in February, 1868, of "high crimes and misdemeanors." The trial lasted from March to May and was exceedingly bitter. Although the Republicans had more than two-thirds majority in the Senate, seven Republicans joined with twelve Democrats and refused to vote for the conviction of the President. He was acquitted by one vote.



SCENE IN ALASKA

On Christmas Day, 1868, full pardon and amnesty was extended to all who had participated in the war against the Union.

423. Atlantic Telegraph Cable. The telegraph laid under the Atlantic in 1858 failed after a few hundred messages had been sent. Another cable, laid in 1865, parted in mid ocean. Cyrus W. Field, who was the prime mover in these enterprises, organized another company and successfully laid a cable (1866). The *Great Eastern*, a mammoth steamship, was used for the purpose. Since that time a dozen cables have

[1] Besides Stevens the leading Radicals were Butler, Cameron, Wade, Henry Winter Davis, Sumner, and Chandler.

been laid to Europe. The completion of the first cable was the cause of great rejoicings as the news of great world events were instantly recorded in both hemispheres instead of requiring weeks as formerly. In 1903 a cable was completed to Manila. Here it met the Asiatic cable, and for the first time a message could be flashed entirely around the earth.

424. Purchase of Alaska, 1867. In 1867 the Russian government sold Alaska to the United States for seven million, two hundred thousand dollars. The purchase was made to secure as much of North America as possible for our domain, to remove one more monarchical government from the New World, and to show our feeling of gratitude to Russia for her friendliness to the Union cause during the war. About five hundred and ninety thousand square miles were added to our domain. Alaska is rich in furs, especially of the seal, and in timber and gold. It has already yielded hundreds of millions of dollars' worth of products.

In the presidential election of 1868 the Republicans nominated General U. S. Grant for president and Schuyler Colfax for vice president. The Democrats nominated Horatio Seymour, governor of New York, for president. Grant and Colfax were elected.

SUMMARY

The leading events of Johnson's administration (1865–1869) were:

The violent quarrel between Congress and the President.

Adoption of the Thirteenth Amendment in 1865 and the Fourteenth Amendment in 1868.

Passage of the Civil Rights Act (1866), the Freedmen's Bureau Act (1866), the Reconstruction Acts (1867), and the Tenure of Office Act (1867).

The assertion of the Monroe Doctrine in regard to Mexico.

Impeachment of the President and his acquittal (1868).

Laying of the Atlantic cable in 1866.

Purchase of Alaska in 1867.

Proclamation of general amnesty in 1868.

Grant's Administrations,[1] 1869–1877

425. The *Alabama* Claims. The United States, as early as 1863, took up with England the *Alabama* question and contended that England should pay heavy damages for allowing the *Alabama* and other cruisers to be built or fitted out in English ports. After years of discussion the matter was referred to a commission.

426. Settlement of Difficulties. This commission met at Washington and concluded a treaty (May 8, 1871). It was decided to settle not only the *Alabama* claims but also disputes regarding the Newfoundland fisheries and the boundary between the United States and Canada at Puget Sound. As a result of this action England was required to pay to the United States fifteen million, five hundred thousand dollars for damages caused by the *Alabama* and other cruisers. The fisheries dispute was settled by the payment by the United States of five million, five hundred thousand dollars for the privilege of fishing on Canadian shores for twelve years. The boundary matter was settled in favor of the United States, which secured the islands lying between the continent and Vancouver Island.

The truly great result of this *Alabama* question, however, was the fact that it was a forward step in the appeal to arbitration instead of to war for the settlement of differences between nations.

427. Civil-Service Reform. The first bill for the reform of the civil service became a law in March, 1871. This led to the appointment of a commission to put the law into force. An important step was thus taken toward securing the appointment of worthy men to office through competitive examinations rather

[1] General Ulysses S. Grant was born in Ohio in 1822. In 1843 he graduated from West Point and later served in the Mexican War. In the Civil War he rose to be general in chief of the armies of the United States. He was elected president in 1868 and was reëlected in 1872. His friends tried in vain to secure his nomination again for a third term in 1880. He died in 1885.

than on the recommendation of a political leader. Not until the Pendleton Civil-Service Act was passed (1883), however, did civil-service reform become an established policy of our government.

428. The Transcontinental Railroad. Until four years after the close of the Civil War passage across the plains between the Missouri River and the Rocky Mountains led along one of two routes: the Oregon trail by the Platte River valley, or the Sante Fe trail along the Arkansas River to the old town of Santa Fe. The former, or northern route, was taken by emigrants intending to settle on the Pacific coast, especially in Oregon. The southern, or Santa Fe trail, was mainly a route of trade by which all the region from Santa Fe to old Mexico was supplied with goods from the Eastern states, and in return furs, buffalo skins, gold, and silver were brought to the Mississippi Valley. The Civil War had impressed strongly on the nation the necessity of some better means of communication between the East and the great West and California. Two companies were formed to build a railroad from the Missouri to the Pacific. The work was begun in 1865 at Omaha on the east and at Sacramento on the west. The great work was finished, and the train from the east met the train from the west (May 10, 1869) near Ogden, Utah.

429. The Great Fires of Chicago and Boston. On Sunday evening, October 8, 1871, a fire broke out in the west division of Chicago and spread with fearful rapidity. It leaped across the Chicago River and until Tuesday morning swept all before it. More than seventeen thousand buildings were destroyed. Not only our nation but foreign countries sent relief to the people of the afflicted city. A little more than a year later (November 9, 1872) the business section of Boston was destroyed by fire.

430. The Fifteenth Amendment. Reëlection of Grant. The Fifteenth Amendment to the Constitution made the negro a voter, as it provided that no law should be passed to prevent

citizens from voting on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude. Three fourths of the states having approved it, it was proclaimed March 30, 1870. In the following year all the states that had seceded were again in the Union, with representatives in both Houses of Congress.

At the end of his first term of office President Grant was renominated and was elected, defeating Horace Greeley, who had been nominated by the Democrats and liberal Republicans.[1]

431. An Era of Scandals. The Civil War and the careless and extravagant use of public money developed an era of betrayal of trust by public officials. The city of New York was robbed of millions of dollars by the infamous Tweed and his associates, while the state of New York was despoiled by the Canal Ring, — the country thieves as distinct from the city thieves; government officials[2] planned with distillers in the West to defraud the United States of the revenues on whisky, no less than a million and a half of dollars being stolen in ten months by this Whisky Ring; the company organized to build the Pacific railroad was shown to have secured legislation by bribery; the Secretary of War, Belknap, was impeached for accepting bribes; the Indian agents in the West robbed the Indians and were even aided in their rascalities by those in Washington who should have protected the Indians. It was a dark picture on the eve of the centennial of our independence.

432. The Weather Bureau. The establishment (1870) of the Weather Bureau was one of the most important events of Grant's administration. This bureau established stations throughout the country and is able to forecast with considerable

[1] Henry Wilson of Massachusetts was elected vice president. Before the electoral vote was cast Horace Greeley died.

[2] Besides Belknap eighty-six officials under the national government were implicated in this corrupt affair, including Babcock, the President's private secretary. Bristow, the honest and brave Secretary of the Treasury, exposed the ring. "The high-water mark of corruption in national affairs," says Rhodes, in "United States," Vol. VII, p. 191, "was reached during Grant's two administrations."

accuracy the coming of storms, dangerous winds, cold waves, and heavy frosts. By means of signals vessels are warned when gales are expected. The warning that severe frosts and storms might be expected has saved to the farmers and to the shipping interests billions of dollars. Thousands of lives might have been lost at sea were it not for the warning signals displayed along the coast.

433. The Crisis of 1873. The amazing growth of industries of all kinds after the Civil War and the success of the first transcontinental railway led to the building of railways in all parts of the Union far beyond the needs of the country. New enterprises largely on borrowed money were started everywhere, although the great fires of Chicago and Boston had rendered necessary the gathering of hundreds of millions of dollars to build up those great marts of trade. Unfortunately just at this time of feverish speculation a prominent Philadelphia banking house failed (September 18, 1873). At once a panic followed. Banks were compelled to suspend, the doors of factories were closed, workmen were thrown out of employment, and widespread suffering ensued. The crisis lasted for at least five years and was probably the most severe financial depression in the history of our country.

434. The Centennial Exposition. Admission of Colorado. In 1876 an international exposition was held in Fairmount Park, Philadelphia, in honor of the hundredth anniversary of our independence. About ten million people visited the exposition. Colorado was admitted to the Union this year, and hence is called the "Centennial" state.

435. The Indian Wars. In 1872 trouble arose with the Modoc Indians of southern Oregon, who had undoubtedly been defrauded by government agents. The Indians went on the warpath, and for a year war was waged in the Far West, until the Indian power was broken and these tribes were removed to Indian Territory. In 1876 trouble arose with Sioux (sōō) Indians when miners rushed into their territory

on the discovery of gold in the Black Hills. The Sioux were asked to surrender some of their lands and to enter a new reservation. Their leader, Sitting Bull, refused and prepared for war. He was encamped on the Little Big Horn River. In an endeavor to surprise him General Custer separated himself with his regiment from the main body of the army and stole around to the rear of the Indian encampment. But the Indians, informed of his movements, suddenly attacked him with overwhelming force, and Custer and his entire command of two hundred and sixty men perished. Sitting Bull retreated later into Canada and peace was secured.

436. The Electoral Commission. At the close of Grant's administration the Republicans nominated Rutherford B. Hayes of Ohio for president, while the Democrats selected Samuel J. Tilden of New York. At the close of the polls Tilden was apparently elected by a large majority. The Republicans, however, claimed to have carried certain Southern states, which, if true, would elect Hayes. The country was in a turmoil, and at last an electoral commission composed of five justices of the Supreme Court, five senators, and five representatives was appointed. Of the fifteen members eight were Republicans and seven Democrats, and by a party vote of eight to seven Hayes was declared elected.

SUMMARY

The leading events of Grant's two administrations (1869–1877) were:
The *Alabama* awards.
First law for civil-service reform.
Opening of the transcontinental railroad.
The great fires in Chicago and Boston.
Adoption of the Fifteenth Amendment.
The scandals in national and municipal affairs.
Establishment of the Weather Bureau.
Crisis of 1873.
Centennial Exposition.
Indian wars.
The electoral commission.

Hayes's Administration,[1] 1877–1881

437. Withdrawal of Federal Troops from the South. Labor Troubles. The war had now been finished for twelve years, and in most of the states of the South the Southern leaders had been able to regain control of the state governments. Federal troops, however, still remained. President Hayes believed no permanent peace could be secured in the South under such conditions, and he promptly ordered the removal of the troops. In the states of South Carolina and Louisiana the carpetbag governments fell with the withdrawal of the Federal forces, and the South was once more allowed to rule itself.

Serious labor troubles arose at this time throughout the country among the employees of railroads, caused partly by the reduction of wages. Riots broke out in Chicago, St. Louis, and Pittsburgh, the railroad station and freight houses in the latter city being completely destroyed. The rioters controlled more than six thousand miles of railway. The state authorities of Maryland, Pennsylvania, West Virginia, and Illinois, believing their force inadequate to quell the trouble, asked the President for aid. The troops at last brought the turmoil to an end, but not until many lives had been lost and millions of dollars' worth of property destroyed. The loss in wages was also very great. The strike was unsuccessful.

438. The Bell Telephone. Although for many years the sound of the human voice could be transmitted from one point to another by means of a wire or cord, it remained for this administration to see the idea put into practical use. At the Centennial Exposition a telephone was exhibited. In the following year (1877) a telephone line was put into use

[1] Rutherford B. Hayes was born in Ohio in 1822, and was admitted to the bar. At the outbreak of the Civil War he enlisted and rose to the rank of major general. He represented his district in Congress, and was elected governor of Ohio. He was nominated by the Republicans in 1876 for president with William A. Wheeler for vice president. Hayes and Wheeler were declared elected by the electoral commission. He died in 1893.

DRIVING THE LAST SPIKE IN THE TRANSCONTINENTAL RAILROAD

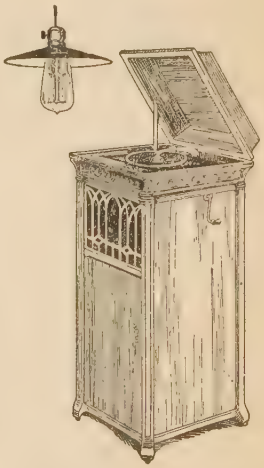
between Boston and Salem — a distance of sixteen miles — by Alexander Graham Bell. Another line, operated under the plans of Professor Gray, was erected between Chicago and Milwaukee, a distance of eighty-five miles. These tests showed the practical nature of the telephone, so that it spread rapidly and is now an essential part of our business and our social life. One may now speak with ease from New York to San Francisco.

ALEXANDER GRAHAM BELL

439. Invention and Development of the Electric Light. Although the electric-arc light had been produced by the famous English scientist Sir Humphry Davy a century ago, little use was made of the idea. In 1878 Charles F. Brush, an American electrical expert, produced a method of electric-arc lighting which revolutionized the system of lighting by electricity. The first regular public use of this wonderful invention was the lighting of the public square of Cleveland, Ohio, in 1879. The arc light quickly spread throughout the world, leading to the brilliant lighting of streets everywhere. Thomas A. Edison at the same time was at work on a smaller electric light which became the well-known incandescent lamp.

American enterprise has developed to a marvelous extent the use of electricity. Trolley cars, trains, engines, and machinery of all kinds are driven by the electric motor. The use of electricity in plating and electrotyping, in the making of aluminum and carborundum, in the manufacture of chemicals, and in the developing of heat for heating and welding are but a few of the examples of the ever-widening field of electricity.

440. The Eads Jetties. The mouth of the Mississippi was being gradually filled up by the vast amount of mud brought down by the river. The loss to commerce was assuming vast proportions when James B. Eads offered a plan to Congress. He proposed to build jetties or banks, through which the river would run with rapidity and by the force of its own current prevent the sand and mud in the water from settling and filling the channel. Congress voted an appropriation, and the plan was successfully carried out. Large ocean steamers now reach New Orleans with ease.



EDISON AND TWO OF HIS INVENTIONS

441. Financial Legislation. From 1862 onward there was no gold or silver money in circulation. Paper money only was in use, and its value rose and fell from time to time. In 1873 Congress passed a law dropping the silver dollar[1]

[1] This was called the *demonetization* of silver; that is, its withdrawal from use as money, as the United States would no longer coin silver dollars. The silver dollar was used in business, but would not be accepted in payment of customs duties, nor in payment of the public debt or the interest thereon. This act was called the "Crime of '73" by the silver advocates.

from the coins to be minted and making gold the only standard of the currency. The silver dollar at this time was worth more than gold.[1] The discovery of large quantities of silver in the West at this time, however, produced so much silver that its price began to fall. The Western states, therefore, now demanded the recoinage of the silver dollar to use up the supply. Congress refused to grant this request. In 1875 Congress passed an act declaring that on January 1, 1879, the greenbacks or paper money issued during the Civil War would be redeemed in gold. This paper money had been worth much less than gold. This action caused the price of the greenbacks to rise to the value of gold.

442. The Bland-Allison Act. A greater demand than ever now arose from the Western states for aid for the cause of silver. In 1878 Congress yielded and passed the Bland-Allison Act, which required the government to coin not less than two nor more than four million silver dollars per month. As the silver dollar was now worth considerably less than the gold dollar, President Hayes vetoed the bill, but it was passed over his veto (1878). The silver dollar became legal tender and, despite its lower metal value, would buy as much as a gold dollar.

443. Resumption of Specie Payment. In 1875 Congress had voted to pay in gold all the obligations of the United States January 1, 1879. On that day, therefore, Secretary of the Treasury Sherman was ready to pay all demands in gold. Few, however, desired gold when it was worth no more than silver or greenbacks. On account of ease in carrying, paper money is preferred as a rule by the people when its value is certain to be the same as that of gold. Our national credit was now so secure that we were enabled to borrow money to pay off our debts at a much lower rate of interest, thus saving millions of dollars to our treasury.

[1] The metal value of the silver dollar at this time was one dollar and two cents in gold. From this time on, however, there was a steady fall in the value of silver.

At the close of Hayes's administration the Republicans nominated James A. Garfield for president and Chester A. Arthur for vice president, while the Democrats nominated General Winfield S. Hancock. Garfield and Arthur were elected.

LINE OF THE FIRST TRANSCONTINENTAL RAILWAY

SUMMARY

The leading events of Hayes's administration (1877–1881) were:
Withdrawal of the Federal troops from the South.
Labor troubles in the West.
Development of the telephone and electric lighting.
Eads's jetties at the mouth of the Mississippi.
Resumption of specie payments.

Dates to be remembered:

1861. Commencement of the Civil War.

1862. The *Monitor* and the *Merrimac.*

1863. The Emancipation Proclamation; battle of Gettysburg; Fall of Vicksburg.

1865. Surrender of General Lee; death of Lincoln; Thirteenth Amendment, abolishing slavery.

1868. Fourteenth Amendment, defining citizenship.

1870. Fifteenth Amendment, granting negro suffrage.

Important dates for reference:

1867. Purchase of Alaska.
1869. Completion of Pacific railroad.
1876–1877. Development of telephone and electric light.

REVIEW EXAMINATION

1. Tell what was accomplished by each of the amendments to the Constitution as a result of the Civil War.

2. Relate the circumstances under which the United States first came into trade relations with Japan.

3. On what charges was President Johnson impeached? What was the result of the trial? How is impeachment of a president brought about, and by whom is the trial conducted?

4. Arrange in order of time the following: Missouri Compromise; Dred Scott decision; beginning of the Mexican War; Emancipation Proclamation; Fugitive Slave Law; invention of the cotton gin.

5. Each of the following pieces of literature refers to an important event in history; name the event and give the author of the poem: (*a*) The Star-Spangled Banner; (*b*) Barbara Frietchie; (*c*) Paul Revere's Ride; (*d*) O Captain! My Captain! (*e*) Battle Hymn of the Republic; (*f*) The Sword of Robert Lee.

6. What is meant by the following terms: (*a*) Ku-Klux Klan; (*b*) carpet-baggers; (*c*) scalawags.

7. What was Johnson's plan of reconstruction? Why did not Congress accept it?

8. Give an account of each of the following: (*a*) the Atlantic cable; (*b*) how Hayes became president.

9. State the important provision of each of the following: (*a*) the Specie Circular of 1836; (*b*) the Independent Treasury Act of 1846; (*c*) the Bland-Allison Act of 1878.

10. Give an important fact connected with each of the following: (*a*) Samuel F. B. Morse; (*b*) Alexander Graham Bell; (*c*) Robert Fulton; (*d*) Cyrus W. Field; (*e*) Eli Whitney; (*f*) Elias Howe; (*g*) Cyrus McCormick.

CHAPTER XIV

THE PERIOD OF INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT

Garfield's Administration (1881); Arthur's Administration (1881–1885)

444. Assassination of the President. President Garfield[1] had been in office scarcely four months when he was shot by Charles J. Guiteau, a disappointed office-seeker. He died September 19, 1881, and the vice president at once assumed the office of president.[2]

445. Revision of the Tariff. Civil-Service Bill. During the war a high tariff had been placed on goods to secure the immense sums of money necessary for military purposes. As these expenditures had ceased, it was thought unwise by many to collect so much money beyond the necessities of the government. It was therefore proposed to reduce the tariff, and a commission was appointed which reported a bill that lowered somewhat the duties on foreign articles, but the bill was still highly protective. It became a law in 1883.

Another bill was passed by Congress in 1883, called the Pendleton Civil-Service Act, which placed the civil service upon a firmer foundation. It was the real beginning of the

[1] James A. Garfield was born in Ohio in 1831. He became a teacher and studied law until the Civil War, when he entered the army and rose to the rank of major general. He was elected to the House of Representatives in 1863 and in 1880 was chosen United States senator, but never took his seat, as he was elected president. He was assassinated in 1881.

[2] Chester A. Arthur was born in Vermont in 1830, and became a lawyer. He was Collector of the Port of New York for seven years and in 1880 was elected vice president. He became president on the death of President Garfield and served until March 4, 1885. He died in 1886.

movement which has grown until, at the present time, almost all office-holders are secure from removal except for cause.

446. The Chinese Exclusion Bill. The overcrowded population of the Asiatic seaboard of China looked with longing eyes to the fair fields of California and began to come in large numbers to that state. As a Chinese laborer worked for low wages and lived in a very frugal manner, the workingmen of the Pacific coast demanded a law to prevent Chinese from coming to our country. In response to this demand a law was passed in 1882 prohibiting the immigration of Chinese laborers for a period of ten years. This law has since been renewed from time to time and is still in force.

447. The Brooklyn Bridge. In 1883 the Brooklyn suspension bridge, which spans the East River in New York City, was completed. The Brooklyn Bridge was the first of the series of beautiful bridges that now span the East River. Under the East and Hudson rivers subways have been built to connect Manhattan Island with Brooklyn, Long Island, and New Jersey.

448. The Alien Contract Labor Law. Expositions in the South. Many corporations found it profitable to send agents abroad to hire foreign workmen to come to this country under contract at a low rate of wages. To prevent this growing evil the Alien Contract Labor Law was passed, forbidding the importation of such contract laborers.

In 1881 a Cotton Exposition was opened in Atlanta, Georgia, and in 1884 New Orleans invited the nations to a World's Exposition. The wonderful development which cotton had effected in the South was shown by the enormous exports of that staple.[1] At the same time the coal fields and iron mines had given life to new manufacturing centers like Atlanta, Chattanooga, and Birmingham, building up the marvelous "New South."

[1] In 1784 about one bale of cotton was exported from Charleston, South Carolina. At the present time the cotton crop of the United States varies from twelve to sixteen million bales of five hundred pounds each.

449. The Democrats regain Power. In 1884 the Republicans nominated James G. Blaine for president, while the Democrats nominated Grover Cleveland. A large independent vote was cast for Cleveland by independent Republicans called "Mugwumps," and he was elected.

SUMMARY

The leading events of the Garfield and the Arthur administrations (1881–1885) were:

Tariff revision and Civil-Service Bill.
Opening of the Brooklyn Bridge.
Alien Contract Labor Law.
Expositions in the South.

Cleveland's Administration,[1] 1885–1889

450. The Washington Monument and the Statue of Liberty. The monument to the memory of George Washington was begun at the national capital in 1848, and the work continued for eight years, when it ceased. In 1878 construction was resumed and it was finished in 1884. It rises over the city of Washington to a height of five hundred and fifty-five feet — the highest monument in the world.

The French Republic, to show its kindly feeling toward the sister republic in America, presented (1886) to the United States a bronze Statue of Liberty. This statue, one hundred and fifty-one feet high, was made by the great sculptor Bartholdi. Congress gave Bedloe's Island, a military post in New York Harbor, as a site for the gift.

451. Important Legislation. The Presidential Succession. The Electoral Count. Interstate Commerce. From 1792 the succession to the presidency in case of the death of the

[1] Grover Cleveland was born in New Jersey in 1837. He studied law and was elected mayor of Buffalo in 1881. In 1882 he became governor of New York. He was elected president in 1884, was defeated for reëlection in 1888 and was again elected in 1892. He died in 1908.

president and vice president would pass to the president of the Senate, and on his death to the speaker of the House of Representatives. By the new law, passed in 1886, the succession passes to the members of the cabinet in the order in which the departments were established. The chief reasons for the passage of this law were: first, the desire for the continuity in the presidential office of the party that had elected the president, and second, the necessity of preventing the possibility of the country's being without a head. (See p. 428, note.)

To prevent a repetition of the troubles caused by the disputed election returns of 1876, a bill was passed providing for the counting of electoral votes. By this bill all votes are legal to which both houses of Congress agree; in a disagreement of the houses those votes shall be counted which are certified by the governor of the state from which the disputed electoral votes come.

A third law was the passage (1887) of the Interstate Commerce Act establishing a commission to secure uniform passenger and freight rates on the railroads between states.

452. Tariff Discussion. Presidential Election. The United States government at this time was receiving from tariff taxation over one hundred million more dollars each year than it needed to pay its debts. President Cleveland recommended that the tariff be reduced, and this became the leading issue in the next (1888) presidential campaign. The Democrats renominated Cleveland for president. The Republicans nominated Benjamin Harrison, senator from Indiana, for president, and he was elected.

SUMMARY

The leading events of Cleveland's administration (1885–1889) were:
Dedication of the Washington Monument and Statue of Liberty.
Important legislation regulating (*a*) the presidential succession; (*b*) the electoral count; (*c*) interstate commerce.
The tariff discussion.

Harrison's Administration,[1] 1889–1893

453. Admission of New States. In 1888 Congress bought from the Creek and Seminole Indians a tract of land, about forty thousand square miles in area, which formerly was a part of Indian Territory. This tract was thrown open to settlement April 22, 1889. At noon of that day tens of thousands were waiting in the line for the bugle blast which announced the opening. Thereupon a wild rush took place for farms. Towns sprang up on all sides, and in five years there were a quarter of a million of inhabitants where formerly the prairie stretched with a few cattle grazing upon it. The territories of the West were anxious to reach the dignity of statehood, and in 1889 North Dakota, South Dakota, Montana, and Washington were admitted to the Union. In the following year Idaho and Wyoming were admitted, and in 1896 Utah was added to the sisterhood of states.

454. The Pan-American Congress. The New Tariff Bill. A congress, called the Pan-American,[2] was held in Washington in the autumn of 1889. It was composed of delegates from the Central and South American republics. The congress was called to establish peace relations and business intercourse between the republics of the New World, and resulted in the promotion of a closer political and commercial union between the American peoples.

The defeat of the Democrats resulted in the Republicans' gaining control of the presidency, the Senate, and the House of Representatives. They soon (October 1, 1890) passed a law, named the McKinley Tariff Act, which materially increased

[1] Benjamin Harrison, a grandson of President William Henry Harrison, was born in Ohio in 1833. He studied law, and at the outbreak of the Civil War entered the army, leaving at the close of hostilities with the rank of brigadier general of volunteers. He was later elected (1880) United States senator from Indiana. He was elected president in 1888 and was defeated for reëlection to the presidency in 1892. He died March 13, 1901.

[2] *Pan* is a Greek word, meaning "all."

the duties in some cases, took off many articles from the free list, and added a few to it. It provided for reciprocity or the reduction of duties to countries which granted a similar favor to the United States.

455. The Sherman Silver Act. A new financial law, called the Sherman Act, was passed in 1890. It amended the Bland-Allison Act of 1878. The new law provided that the Secretary

PAN-AMERICAN UNION IN WASHINGTON

of the Treasury should buy four and a half million ounces of silver each month if that amount were offered. Payment was to be made in treasury notes that would be legal tender. This silver was not to be coined into dollars until it was needed to redeem any treasury notes that might be presented.

456. The Anti-Trust Act. This period witnessed the development of large combinations of capital called trusts. Railroads were united into single large systems; small business houses were joined together into large corporations, especially in oil, sugar, steel, and tobacco. On every hand the work of combining all business in the hands of a few men was going on, leading, it was feared, to monopoly and placing of dangerous power

in the hands of a few. To remedy this condition Congress passed (1890) the Sherman Anti-Trust Act to punish any attempts in restraint of trade.

457. Development of the Labor Unions. While capital was bringing about the combinations called trusts, labor was successfully combining its members into unions. The Knights of Labor joined in one organization a million members. Later the American Federation of Labor united the workers in nearly all branches of industry. The labor unions were formed to better the condition of the laborer by securing for him higher wages and shorter hours. At times better accommodations for the workers were demanded. A refusal to grant the requests of the unions led frequently to a "strike," when all the workers ceased to labor and walked out. The strike at times led to the "boycott," which meant the refusal to have anything to do with "unfair" goods, as the products of manufacturing establishments opposed to the unions were called. Fortunately arbitration has settled without great difficulty most of the problems connected with union labor.

458. The Homestead Strike. In the summer of 1892 a serious labor trouble arose at the Carnegie steel works at Homestead, Pennsylvania. A band of armed Pinkerton detectives was sent to the works, but was fired on by the strikers and compelled to return. After weeks of the bitterest feeling the strike ended. It had a very important bearing on the country, for in the next presidential election it undoubtedly turned thousands of laboring men from the Republican party, which was identified with high tariff protection, to the Democratic party.

459. Establishment of the Catholic University. A very important step in the promotion of higher education in America was the establishment, in 1889, of the Catholic University of America at Washington. Courses in theology, law, philosophy, letters, science, and education are given. With the institutions grouped around it and the affiliated colleges throughout the

country, the Catholic University has become a great center of learning for the laity, the diocesan clergy, and the religious orders.

STEPS IN TRANSCONTINENTAL TRANSPORTATION

460. The Granger Movement. The farmers, particularly in the West, began to organize as early as 1867 to secure better treatment by the railroads in the matter of rates. They were also trying to make farming more profitable and more comfortable. Under the name of Grangers, or Patrons of

Husbandry, they enrolled one hundred and fifty members in their organization. In 1873 the Farmers' Alliance was formed in the state of New York and spread rapidly. One of its purposes was to secure for the farmer more consideration in national legislation.

In 1889 the Grangers formed at St. Louis the Farmers' Alliance and Industrial Union, and in the following year they entered the campaign for congressmen and elected several members to the national House of Representatives. The Alliance joined with the Labor party and formed for the next presidential campaign the People's party. Besides their political activities they aided each other by erecting coöperative warehouses, elevators, and stores, and arranging clubs and reading rooms for the benefit of the members.

461. Second Election of Cleveland. In the presidential campaign of 1892 the Republicans renominated President Harrison. The Democrats chose former President Cleveland as their candidate. The Populist, or People's, party, which was made up of the Farmers' Alliance, the Labor party, and various industrial organizations, nominated General James B. Weaver for president. Mr. Cleveland was elected, with Adlai E. Stevenson as vice president. The electoral vote was 277 for Cleveland, 145 for Harrison, and 22 for Weaver. It was the first time in thirty-two years that any third party had secured an electoral vote.

SUMMARY

The leading events of Harrison's administration (1889–1893) were:
The admission of new states.
The Pan-American Congress.
The McKinley Tariff Bill.
The Sherman Act.
The Homestead Strike.
Establishment of the Catholic University.
The Granger Movement.

Cleveland's Second Administration, 1893–1897

462. The Wilson Tariff. The Columbian Exposition. The Democrats, believing that the result of the elections indicated a desire on the part of the people for lower tariff duties, passed the Wilson Tariff Act, lowering many duties and putting on the free list much raw material used in manufactures.

To commemorate suitably the four hundredth anniversary of the discovery of America by Columbus, a World's Fair was held in Chicago. It was opened by President Cleveland and by the Duke of Veragua, who was a lineal descendant of Columbus.

463. Hawaii. At the outset of President Cleveland's second administration he was met by the problem of Hawaii. The Hawaiian Islands were discovered by Captain Cook, an Englishman, in 1778. They are nearly halfway across the Pacific and are a very important stopping-place for vessels on the way to Australia, the Orient, and the Philippines. The islands were ruled by native kings until January 14, 1893, when a revolution was begun in Hawaii to overthrow the monarchy. By the aid of the United States Minister and of marines from the United States cruiser *Boston* the revolution was successful. A provisional government was organized, which drew up a treaty of annexation with the United States. This treaty was sent to the Senate (February 15, 1893) by President Harrison, but was not acted upon before President Cleveland took his seat. He asked at once to have the treaty withdrawn that it might be further examined.

On July 4, 1894, the Republic of Hawaii was established and was recognized by President Cleveland. Four years later, during the Spanish War, Hawaii was annexed to the United States and became the Territory of Hawaii.

464. The Bering Sea Controversy, 1893. One of the most valuable possessions of Alaska is the seal fisheries. The United States claimed that the purchase of Alaska had given

her the right to control the fisheries of Bering Sea. She seized numbers of British vessels. England denied the claims of the United States and maintained the right to hunt for seals three miles and more from the shore. The dispute was referred in 1893 to a commission, which decided that Great Britain was right as to the question of taking seals outside the three-mile limit. The United States paid, therefore, for British vessels that had been seized. The commission provided at the same time, however, for the future protection of the seals.

465. The Venezuela Question, 1895. A little later (1895) a dispute arose in South America over the boundary between Venezuela and British Guiana. Venezuela believed that Great Britain was trying to deprive her of territory that belonged to her. Venezuela appealed to the United States for protection against her powerful neighbor. President Cleveland, seeing that Great Britain showed no disposition to arbitrate the matter, believed the Monroe Doctrine should protect the weaker state. In a special message (December 17, 1895) he asked Congress to give him power to appoint a commission to find the real facts in the case and to establish the true boundary line. Congress so voted, and Great Britain soon afterwards arbitrated the question.

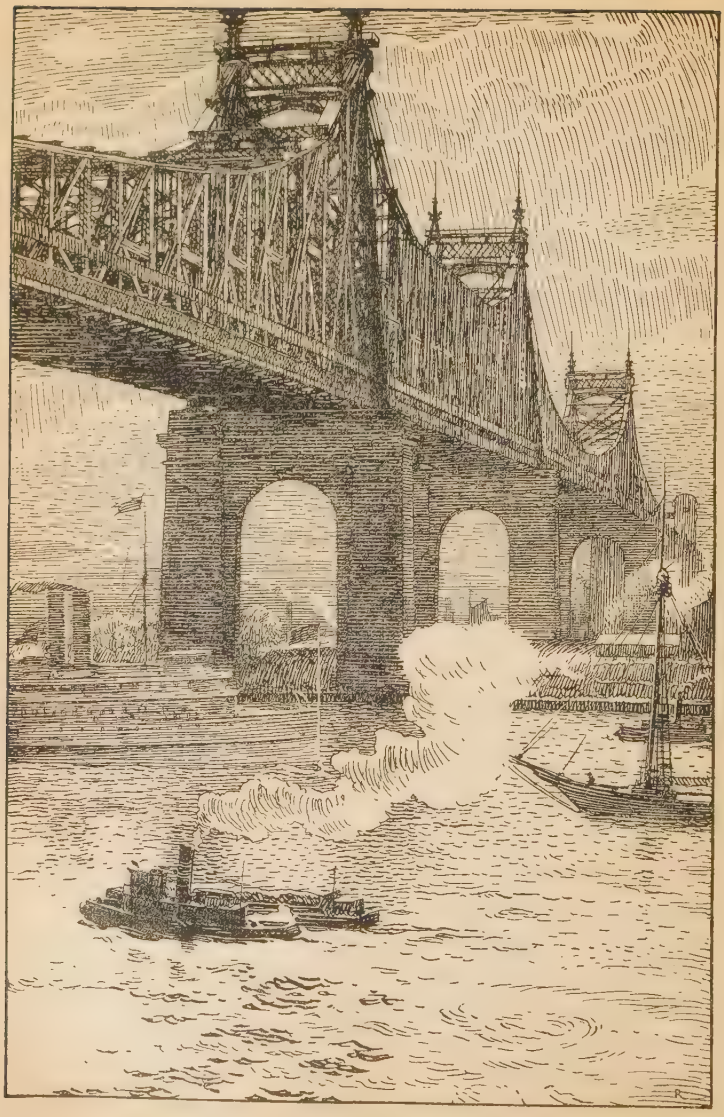
466. The Crisis of 1893. Repeal of the Sherman Silver Act. In 1890 there began a business depression in Europe which would have had an immediate effect on the United States had not the crops, to a certain extent, failed in the countries of Europe. This caused a large export of food products from the United States. Soon, however, European nations were compelled to withdraw the money which they had invested in the United States. At this very time also the silver and tariff questions were agitating the country. To add to the problems of the times, the Philadelphia and Reading Railroad Company failed (1893) through gross mismanagement, and the failure of the National Cordage Company soon followed. As a result President Cleveland had hardly taken his seat when a crisis

swept through the land. Five hundred and seventy-three banks failed. Factories were compelled to close, and thousands of laborers were thrown out of employment. Three fourths of all the railroads in the country went into the hands of receivers.

It was believed the large purchase of silver under the Sherman Act was one of the leading causes of the troubles. A special session of Congress was called (1893), and the law was repealed, without, however, stopping the crisis.

467. The Pullman Strike. Immediately following the crisis a great railroad strike occurred in the West. Four thousand workmen employed by the Pullman Palace Car Company struck for higher wages. One hundred and fifty thousand members of the American Railway Union sympathized with the strikers and would not haul a train to which a Pullman car was attached. This tied up completely the railroads that used Chicago as a terminal. Riots followed, and the United States mail was obstructed. The Federal troops were sent by President Cleveland to protect mail trains, much to the displeasure of the labor leaders. The strikers were finally defeated. The strike lasted three months with a loss to all interested of about eighty million dollars.

468. Use of the Injunction. In this contest appeared the use of the so-called "blanket injunction" and the discussion of "government by injunction." A Federal judge had issued an injunction against not only the members of the Railway Union but against "all other persons" to prevent interference with the mails. For violating this blanket injunction a member of the Railway Union was sentenced to jail. The United States Supreme Court upheld the sentence. The labor leaders declared the sentence was unjust, as the writ, they claimed, had been issued when only one side was presented. This violated also, it was declared, the right of trial by jury. The labor unions now maintained that instead of the usual processes of law, the capitalist classes were trying to conduct the government by injunctions issued by Federal judges.



ONE OF NEW YORK'S GREAT BRIDGES

Government by injunction, the labor leaders said, would do away with all the usual proceedings in criminal law. There would be no indictment and no trial by jury. The Federal judge would issue an injunction, and if it were not obeyed, the offender would be put at once in prison for contempt of court, from which there would be no appeal. Probably nothing since slavery aroused the laboring interests more than the question of the injunction. Congress was asked to restrain by law the use of the injunction, but it failed to pass any law to that end.

469. Repeal of the Federal Elections Act. The Federal Elections Act, commonly called the Force Bill, which allowed the Federal authorities to use, if they desired, military forces at the polls, had been the source of so much bitter feeling and strife in the South that it was repealed in 1894.

The chief issue in the presidential campaign of 1896 was the demand of the Democratic party for the free and unlimited coinage of silver and gold at a ratio of sixteen ounces of silver to one of gold.[1] William J. Bryan was nominated on this platform. The Republicans opposed the free coinage of silver except by international agreement. They nominated William McKinley, who was elected.

SUMMARY

The leading events of Cleveland's second administration (1893–1897) were:

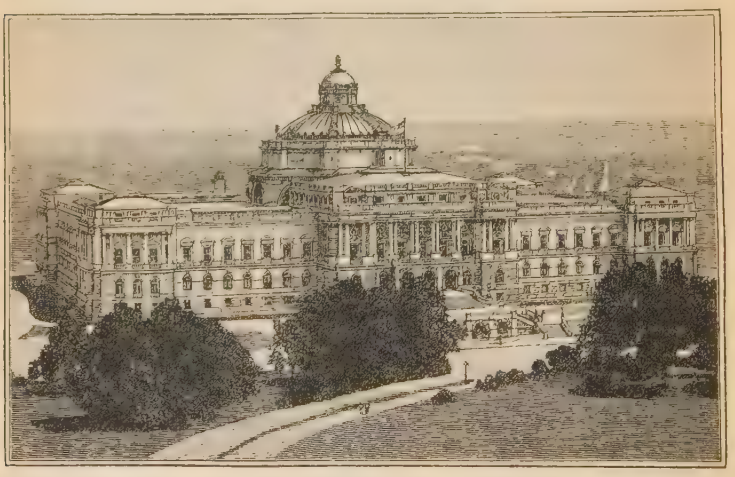
The Wilson Tariff Act.
The Columbian Exposition.
The establishment of the Republic of Hawaii.
The Bering Sea and Venezuela questions.
The Crisis of 1893 and the repeal of the Sherman Act.
The repeal of the Federal Elections Act.

[1] Under this plan the government would be required to mint all the silver that was brought to it at the ratio of sixteen ounces of silver to one of gold. In the world's market at this time it required thirty-two ounces of silver to buy one of gold. The real value of the dollar coined under this plan would be only fifty-two cents, although stamped one dollar.

McKinley's First Administration,[1] 1897–1901

470. The Dingley Tariff. At the beginning of his administration the new president called a special session of Congress, which passed (July 24, 1897) the so-called Dingley Tariff Act.

The principal features of this act were the placing again of duties on wool; hides, which had been on the free list for a



CONGRESSIONAL LIBRARY BUILDING, WASHINGTON

quarter of a century, were again taxed; higher duties were placed on woolens, flax, silks, and linens. Reciprocity was again provided for, as well as the regulations against "trusts" or combinations in restraint of lawful trade.

During this year the Congressional Library Building was opened. Six million volumes can find place on its miles of shelves. The mural paintings that adorn it are world-famous.

[1] William McKinley was born in Ohio in 1843. He enlisted in the army and served through the Civil War, rising to the rank of major. He was later admitted to the bar, and in 1876 was elected to Congress by the Republicans. In 1891 he was elected governor of Ohio and was reëlected in 1893. He was elected president in 1896 and was reëlected in 1900. He died September 14, 1901, from the bullet of an assassin.

471. The War in Cuba. Destruction of the *Maine*. From 1868 to 1878 war had existed in Cuba between the Cubans and their Spanish rulers. In 1895 a new revolt broke out, and the waste of life and property so near our shores led many to ask our government to interfere. Our government refused to take this step, as we were at peace with Spain, a friendly nation. We even tried, frequently in vain, to prevent armed expeditions from leaving our shores to help the insurgents.

THE WEST INDIES

Spain in the meantime withdrew the governor to whom the United States had objected and granted a larger measure of self-government to Cuba.

To see that American lives and property were secure, however, the battleship *Maine* was sent to Havana. On the night of February 15, 1898, the *Maine* was destroyed at her anchorage. Two of her officers and two hundred and fifty-eight of her crew went down with the unfortunate vessel.

A court of inquiry, after investigation, declared its belief that the *Maine* was blown up by a submarine mine. The court did not, however, lay the blame on anyone. Spain at once expressed her regret for the sad occurrence, which she believed was caused by an internal explosion of the forward magazine of the ship. She asked for arbitration, but it was refused, and

President McKinley sent all the papers to Congress. That body had been anxious for two years to recognize the independence of Cuba and, if necessary, to wage war with Spain to bring about that result.

472. Declaration of War against Spain, April 25, 1898. The feeling against Spain in the United States, resulting from the loss of the *Maine*, became so intense that Congress passed resolutions which declared that "the people of Cuba are and of right ought to be free and independent; that it is the duty of the United States to demand that Spain should give up Cuba and withdraw its forces from the island; that the President is directed and empowered to use all the forces of the United States and to call out the militia in order to carry out these resolutions; that the United States disclaims any intention of control over said island except for the pacification thereof and asserts its determination, when that is accomplished, to leave the government and control of the island to its people." These resolutions caused the Spanish government to give to our minister in Madrid his passports, and April 25, 1898, Congress declared war to exist between the United States and Spain.

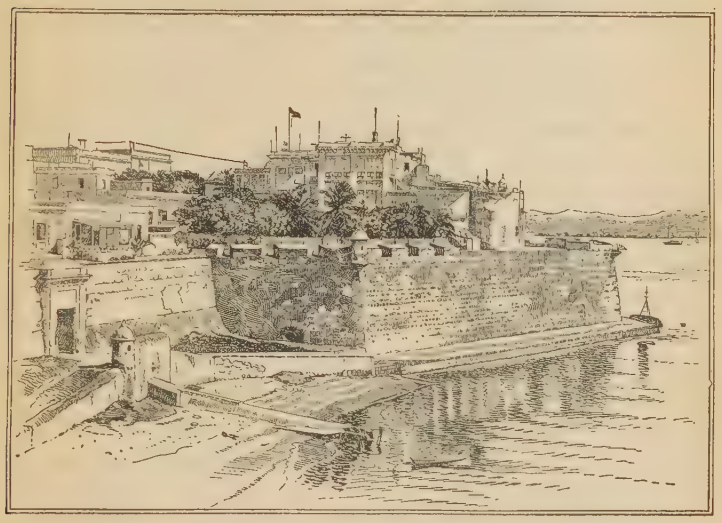
473. Battle of Manila Bay, May 1, 1898. The United States Asiatic Squadron, under Commodore George Dewey, was at this time in the harbor of Hongkong. Dewey sailed at once for Manila, the capital of the Philippine Islands. In Manila Bay he met the poorly equipped Spanish fleet and sank every vessel. The loss of life to the Spanish was very great.

The Americans lost neither a vessel nor a man. Congress gave Dewey a vote of thanks and a sword, and the President appointed him rear admiral. He was later given the highest rank in the navy — that of admiral.

474. The Santiago Campaign. El Caney and San Juan. Another Spanish fleet under Admiral Cervera[1] sailed from Spain and safely reached the harbor of Santiago,[2] Cuba. At once a large fleet of United States warships gathered before

[1] Cervera (ther veh'rah). [2] Santiago (sahn tee ah'go).

the entrance to Santiago. In the meantime our army had landed in eastern Cuba and drawn near the city of Santiago. On July 1 and 2 the Americans attacked the fortified posts of El Caney[1] and San Juan.[2] After a gallant defense the Spaniards were driven back and took refuge behind the defenses



SAN JUAN, PORTO RICO

of Santiago.[3] On the following day (July 3) the Spanish fleet made a sudden dash out of the harbor. They were at once attacked by the American warships and every Spanish vessel was destroyed. Admiral Cervera and twelve hundred of his men were made prisoners, while the loss of life on his vessels had been very great. The American loss was one man killed.

[1] El Caney (el kah′ nay).

[2] San Juan (sahn whahn′).

[3] In the American army was a volunteer regiment of cavalry made up of cowboys, college graduates, adventurers, and expert horsemen. They were in consequence called the Rough Riders. There were only five hundred of this regiment before Santiago, and most of the fighting was done by the regular standing army of the United States.

Not a vessel had been seriously injured. Two weeks later (July 17) the city of Santiago surrendered. Porto Rico was captured with practically no resistance.

475. Terms of Peace. War in the Philippines. The Spanish government now sought terms of peace, and commissioners met in Paris. On December 10, 1898, the treaty was signed. As a result of the war Spain lost Cuba, Porto Rico, and the Philippines, and Guam in the Ladrones.[1] For the improvements in the Philippines twenty millions of dollars were paid. The treaty was ratified February 6, 1899. The war had cost the United States eight hundred and forty-two million dollars, although it lasted only a few months.

The Filipinos in the meantime had organized a republic under the dictatorship of Aguinaldo,[2] their military leader. They declined to recognize the right of Spain to cede their country to the Americans, and war finally broke out February 4, 1899, between the Americans and the Filipinos. For several days the Filipinos presented a strong front to the American troops, until the fall of Malolos,[3] their capital. Although for most of the time after this event there was merely guerrilla warfare, the war continued for two years.

476. The Hague Conference. The Czar of Russia invited (1898) the nations of the world to a conference, to secure if possible the abolition of war and the reduction of standing armies. In answer to this invitation the nations sent representatives to The Hague, in Holland, where the conference opened in 1899. Many plans were adopted for relieving the horrors of war, and it was decided to establish an International Court of Arbitration, in which most of the greater nations of the world are represented.

477. The Gold Standard Act. The discussion over the relative merits of gold and silver as the standard of value had been the leading question in the presidential election of 1896.

[1] Ladrones (lah dro′nace). [2] Aguinaldo (ah gēe nahl′do).
[3] Malolos (mah loh′loce).

Congress finally took up the matter and passed an act making the gold dollar the standard of value and providing for "the maintenance at a parity with that standard of all forms of money issued or coined by the United States." This measure was warmly opposed in both the Senate and House of Representatives, but it became a law March 14, 1900.[1]

EASTERN ASIA AND THE PHILIPPINE ISLANDS

478. Freedom of Trade with China. The leading nations of Europe, in their desire for further colonial territory, secured from China on one pretext or another portions of her territory. It seemed probable that all China would be divided among the European nations, who would probably place heavy customs duties on all goods entering the ports

[1] There was at this time a large increase in the world's supply of gold through the discovery of gold mines in the Klondike region of Canada. From these mines one hundred and twenty-four million dollars' worth of gold was produced in the next twelve years. The Klondike discovery was followed one year later by the news that gold had been found in large quantities at Cape Nome in Alaska. These discoveries caused the stampede of thousands to the far Northwest.

of China under their control. As this would shut out our goods, the United States asked (1899) Great Britain, Germany, Russia, France, Italy, and Japan to grant free trade to all the world in the Chinese ports under their control. In resentment at the action of foreign nations in China an insurrection broke out (1900) called the Boxer Rebellion, which planned to kill all foreigners in China or drive them from the country. The foreign legations in Peking were besieged, and some Europeans were killed. Eight of the leading nations of the world sent troops to relieve the legations. Fortunately these troops were able to fight their way into Peking in time to save the members of the legations. Many of the nations later agreed to the policy of the "open door," by which the dismemberment of China might be averted.[1]

479. Reëlection of President McKinley. In the presidential election of 1900 President McKinley was reëlected. Theodore Roosevelt was elected vice president. The Democratic candidate was William J. Bryan.

A leading issue of the campaign was again the free coinage of silver at the ratio of 16 to 1. Another issue was "imperialism." Imperialism means the method of ruling a people without their consent. It was declared by the Democratic party that in maintaining colonies we were doing this and thereby departing from our republican form of government. The Republicans were successful in the election, and President McKinley was reëlected.

SUMMARY

The leading events of McKinley's first administration (1897–1901) were:

The Dingley tariff.

The war with Spain and in the Philippines.

The Hague Conference.

Freedom of trade with China.

[1] By a cession signed by the native chiefs and by a treaty with England and Germany we secured (April 17, 1900) Tutuila, with the excellent harbor of Pagopago, and a few other islands of the Samoan group.

McKinley's Second Administration, 1901; Roosevelt's First Administration, 1901–1905

480. The Pan-American Exposition. Assassination of President McKinley. In the spring of 1901 the Pan-American Exposition was opened in Buffalo. The purpose of the exposition was to show the development of the states of North, Central, and South America, and to join in bonds of friendship the republics of the New World.

On September 6, while President McKinley was giving a public reception, he was shot by an anarchist, Leon F. Czolgosz.[1] He died September 14, and Vice President Roosevelt[2] at once assumed the office of president.

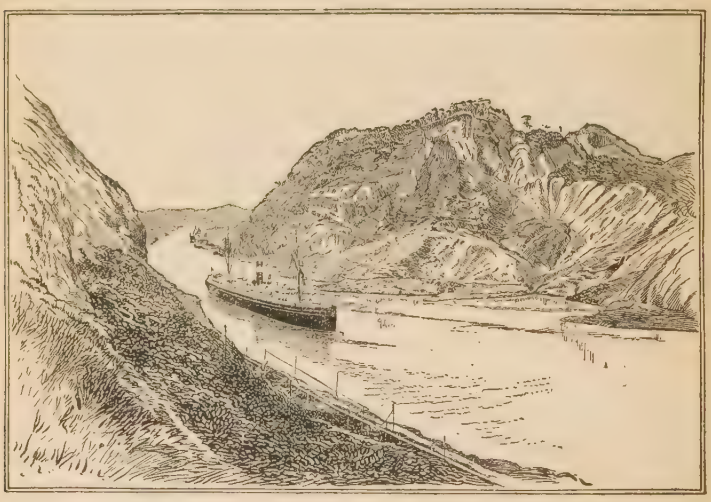
481. The Panama Canal. The earliest Spanish explorers recognized the value of a canal that would pierce the Isthmus of Panama and join the Atlantic and the Pacific Ocean.[3] Many years ago a French company began to dig a canal between Panama and Colon, but the enormous cost of the undertaking and the difficulties met in its construction compelled them to stop work. The Congress of the United States at last actively took up the question and voted (1902) to build the canal, buying out the French rights for forty million dollars. Panama at this time was one of the states of the Republic of Colombia. While the treaty between the United States and

[1] Czolgosz (chol'gosh).

[2] Theodore Roosevelt was born in New York City in 1858. He served in the legislature of the state of New York and in 1889 was appointed United States Civil Service Commissioner. In 1897 he was made Assistant Secretary of the Navy. At the outbreak of the war with Spain he resigned this office to organize the Rough Riders. In 1898 he was elected governor of New York. Two years later he was elected vice president of the United States and succeeded as president on the death of President McKinley. He was elected president in 1904. He was a candidate for a third term in 1912 but was defeated. He died on January 6, 1919.

[3] Charles I of Spain (1516–1556) wished to build a canal and Philip II, his successor, was at first favorable to the plan but later forbade even the discussion of the question. In 1814 the Spanish government voted to cut the canal, but nothing was done.

Colombia was being considered by the Congress of the latter country, the state of Panama rose in rebellion against Colombia and declared itself an independent republic. It was at once recognized as such by the United States and by the great nations of the world. Later the republic of Panama gave to the United States control over the zone through which the



THE FIRST SHIP THROUGH THE PANAMA CANAL

canal has been built. So rapidly was the work pushed to completion under the able direction of General George W. Goethals that the canal was opened in 1914 to the commerce of the world.

482. The Development of Latin-America. As the building of the canal through the Isthmus of Panama ushers in a new era for the countries of Central and South America, a brief review of their history is necessary. South America was reached by Columbus on his third voyage in 1498. He touched the continent at the mouth of the Orinoco. On his fourth voyage (1502) he explored the coast of Central America. In the meantime Cabral, the Portuguese voyager, reached the coast in 1500, giving Portugal title to that rich country. In 1513 Balboa crossed

the Isthmus of Panama and discovered the Pacific Ocean. The southern point of the continent was reached by Magellan in 1520, when he discovered the strait which gave passage to ships from the Atlantic to the Pacific. Within twenty-eight years, therefore, of the discovery of America, so active had been the Latin spirit of exploration that the whole east coast of South America had been explored. With the conquest of Mexico by the Spaniards under Cortés in 1521 and the triumph of Pizarro over Peru in 1531 the west coast began to pass under Spanish rule, and colonies were set up in all parts of Central and South America. These colonies flourished under the laws of the Indies, drawn up by Spain for the government of her colonies in the New World. The leading colonies were Buenos Aires, New Granada (or Colombia), Venezuela, Chile, Mexico, Peru, Bolivia, Paraguay, Uruguay, Guatemala, Honduras, and Costa Rica.

483. The Overthrow of Spanish and Portuguese Rule. In 1808 Napoleon Bonaparte overthrew the monarchy of Spain and placed his brother Joseph on the Spanish throne. This was the signal for revolt in Latin America. Mexico declared her independence in 1810, and the other colonies followed immediately. Under the leadership of Miranda, Bolívar, and Sucre in the north and San Martín in the south the colonies, after many years of bitter warfare, won their independence — Buenos Aires, or Argentina (1816), Chile (1818), Mexico, Venezuela, Colombia, and Peru (1821). The colonies of Central America also became independent republics during this epoch.

When Portugal, in 1807, was overrun by the forces of Napoleon, the Portuguese king fled to Brazil. Later, when Brazil threw off its allegiance to Portugal, the son of the king of Portugal was elected emperor of Brazil, which remained an empire until 1889, when the empire was overthrown and a republic established. Throughout the Latin republics revolution has followed revolution, but many have at last arrived at a condition of peace and prosperity.

484. Department of Commerce and Labor. Louisiana Purchase Exposition. To cope with the growing foreign and domestic commerce of the United States a national department of commerce and labor was created (1903) and the secretary was given a seat in the president's cabinet.[1] The department has greatly advanced the trade and industry of the country.

To commemorate the hundredth anniversary of the purchase of Louisiana by President Jefferson the Louisiana Purchase Exposition was held in St. Louis in 1904. The exposition showed the extent and the development of the resources of our country and the skill of its people in arts and trades.

485. The National Election of 1904. In 1904 the Republicans nominated for president Theodore Roosevelt, who had filled that high office since the death of President McKinley.

The Democrats chose as their candidate for president Alton B. Parker, Chief Justice of the Court of Appeals of New York.

Among the leading issues of the campaign were the colonial policy of the country, especially in reference to the retention of the Philippine Islands, the revision of the tariff, and the need of greater economy in the expenditure of the money of the government. In the election the Republicans were successful, and Roosevelt was elected.

SUMMARY

Leading events of McKinley's and Roosevelt's administrations (1901–1905):

Pan-American Exposition.
Panama Canal treaty.
Establishment of Department of Commerce and Labor.
Louisiana Purchase Exposition.

[1] The president's cabinet consists of (1) the Secretary of State; (2) the Secretary of the Treasury; (3) the Secretary of War; (4) the Attorney-General; (5) the Postmaster-General; (6) the Secretary of the Navy; (7) the Secretary of the Interior; (8) the Secretary of Agriculture (1889); (9) the Secretary of Commerce (1903); (10) the Secretary of Labor (1913). Only the first seven can succeed to the presidency under the Act of 1886 (see sect. 451).

Roosevelt's Second Administration, 1905–1909

486. The San Francisco Disaster. On the morning of April 18, 1906, a violent earthquake shook the central coast region of California for a distance of hundreds of miles. So violent was the shock at San Francisco that thousands of buildings were destroyed and the pipes supplying the city with water were broken. Fires broke out quickly in many sections of the city and for two days the flames swept onward. An area of almost four square miles was devastated, with a loss of hundreds of millions of dollars. From all parts of the country and even from distant Japan generous aid was sent to the stricken city.

487. Admission of Oklahoma. As early as 1834 Congress set aside a vast tract of country west of the Mississippi River for the use of the Indians. From this great area many states were later formed, until finally only Indian Territory remained.

In that year the United States government purchased from the Indian tribes the western portion of this territory. It was given the name Oklahoma, or Beautiful Country, from the great fertility of its soil. Oklahoma was thrown open to settlement in 1889. Cities quickly arose, and within ten years the prosperous territory had a population of hundreds of thousands of people.

In 1906 Congress passed an act admitting Oklahoma and Indian Territory into the Union as a state under the name of Oklahoma. Its area is greater than that of all the New England states combined.

488. Important Legislation. During the session of 1906 Congress passed three important laws, — the Railway Rate Act, the Meat Inspection Act, and the Pure Food and Drugs Act.

The purpose of the Railway Rate Act is to give greater power to the Federal government in regulating interstate commerce. It requires railway corporations and other common carriers to treat all shippers of goods over their lines with equal

fairness. The law forbids the secret rates and rebates by which the trusts to a great extent have been built up.

The Meat Inspection Act and Pure Food and Drugs Act provide for the strict examination and labeling of food products. These laws have raised the standard of our food products and have greatly promoted the health of the people.

489. Intervention in Cuba. At the signing of the treaty of peace with Spain in 1898 Cuba passed under the military control of the United States. In 1901 the Congress of the United States, under the so-called Platt Amendment, voted to leave the control of Cuba to the people of that island if they would agree to make no treaty with any foreign power that would endanger their independence; to contract no debt for which the current revenue would not suffice; to give to the United States the right to intervene, if necessary, to preserve life, property, or individual liberty; and to give to the United States two naval stations in Cuba. These conditions were accepted by Cuba, a new Constitution was adopted, and a president and Congress were elected. The United States thereupon formally recognized (May 20, 1902) the new republic of Cuba.

In 1906 a revolution broke out against the government of Cuba, and the president of that country resigned. The United States thereupon sent a military force to maintain order and to take control of the island until the revolution should end and a new president should be elected. The new president took his seat in 1909 and the provisional government of the United States was withdrawn.

490. The Second Hague Peace Conference, 1907. The first Peace Conference of 1899 at The Hague had been so successful that the president of the United States suggested a second conference. This conference met at The Hague June 15, 1907. Forty-four nations were represented. While the conference did not succeed in reducing the armies and the navies of the world, it made provision for the collection of contract debts by peaceful means instead of by the use of an army and navy; it

also established a prize court for neutrals,[1] and made further provision for the International Court of Arbitration.[2]

491. The Crisis of 1907. Presidential Election. In the autumn of 1907 a large trust company in New York City failed, and a crisis as severe as any that has ever befallen the country spread through all parts of the Union. Many banks and trust companies failed, and there was widespread distress in all sections of the country.

In the presidential election of 1908 the Republicans nominated William H. Taft for president. The Democrats nominated William J. Bryan. The issues of the campaign were the trusts, imperialism, the protective tariff, and the use of the injunction. The Republicans were successful, and Taft was elected president.

SUMMARY

The leading events of Roosevelt's second administration (1905–1909) were as follows:

The San Francisco disaster.
The admission of Oklahoma.
The Railway Rate Act.
The Meat Inspection Act.
The Pure Food and Drugs Act.
Intervention in Cuba.
The Hague Peace Conference.
The Crisis of 1907.

[1] The first case before the Hague Tribunal was the so-called "Pious Fund" case. This case arose over the seizure of property belonging to the Roman Catholic Church in California when Mexico owned that territory. The Mexican government had promised to pay six per cent of the value of the seized property annually to the Church. Mexico had failed to pay, however, for many years, and the United States asked for the adjustment of the matter. The Hague Tribunal decided in favor of the United States, and Mexico at once paid the debt.

[2] In 1904 war broke out between Japan and Russia. So many lives were lost in the battles of the war that the president of the United States invited the governments of Japan and Russia to send representatives to a conference. The invitation was accepted, the representatives met at Portsmouth, New Hampshire, and a treaty of peace was signed, putting an end to the fearful struggle in the East.

Taft's Administration,[1] 1909–1913

492. The Payne-Aldrich Tariff Act. Believing that the ever-increasing cost of living was due in part to the high tariff duties of the Dingley Act there arose a widespread desire among the people for a downward revision of the tariff. Shortly after his inauguration, therefore, President Taft called a special session of Congress. After a long debate in the House of Representatives and in the Senate, the Payne-Aldrich Tariff Act became a law (August 5, 1909). The new tariff was a great disappointment to a vast majority of the people, as it increased duties instead of reducing them.

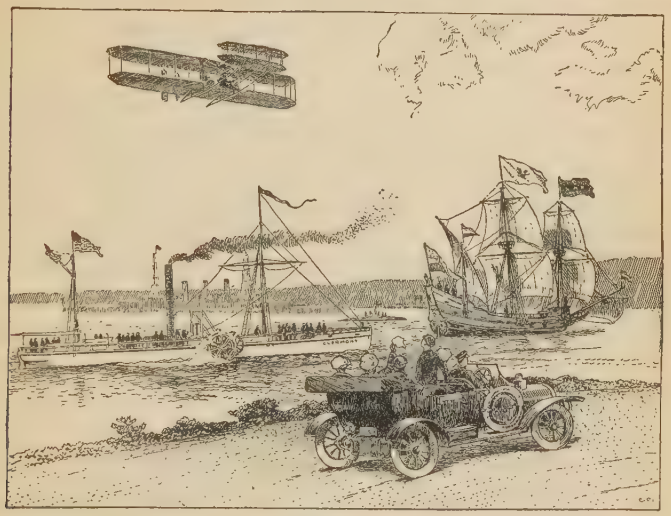
493. Two Great Celebrations. The Alaska-Yukon-Pacific Exposition was opened June 1, 1909, at Seattle, Washington. The object of this exposition was to show the wealth of the Pacific coast and Alaska Territory and to promote the development of commerce across the Pacific with the Orient.

The Hudson-Fulton Celebration, held in New York City and the Hudson River counties (September 25–October 9, 1909), commemorated two great events.[2] The first was the three hundredth anniversary of the exploration of the Hudson River by Henry Hudson, in the Dutch ship *Half Moon*, in 1609. The second event commemorated was the one hundredth anniversary of the first successful application of steam navigation by Robert Fulton, in the *Clermont*, in 1807. The people of Holland built an exact reproduction of the *Half Moon*, which was presented to the American people for the celebration. The little *Clermont* was also reproduced.

[1] William Howard Taft was born in Ohio in 1857, and in 1880 was admitted to the bar. He was appointed judge of the United States Circuit Court in 1892 and became the first civil governor of the Philippine Islands in 1901. In 1904 he became Secretary of War. In 1908 he was elected president of the United States, and was defeated for reëlection in 1912.

[2] In September, 1909, the news reached the United States that the north pole had been discovered five months before (April 6, 1909) by an American naval officer, Commodore Robert E. Peary. Two years later (December 14, 1911) Captain Roald Amundsen of Norway discovered the south pole.

494. Process of Naturalization. The United States has always maintained that the subject of a foreign power could, under certain conditions, change his citizenship and become an American citizen. The earliest naturalization law required five years' residence here. The Federalists changed (1798) the law so that fourteen years' residence was required. This act was repealed in 1802, and five years again made the necessary



THE HUDSON-FULTON CELEBRATION

period of residence. The subject of a foreign power coming to our shores who desires to become a citizen must make a declaration of intention to the Federal or state court. Two years after this declaration a petition for citizenship is made. The person seeking citizenship must prove by two witnesses that he or she has been in the country five years, is of good character, can speak English, can sign his or her name, and has some understanding of the Constitution and of our form of government. When this has been done final papers may be issued and the applicant receives full citizenship.

495. Admission of New Mexico and Arizona. The area included in New Mexico and Arizona was first visited by Europeans in 1536, when Cabeza de Vaca traversed it. Three years later it was visited by the Franciscan Friar Marcos and in 1540 by Coronado. Upon the revolt of Mexico from Spain it was made (1824) a territory of the republic of Mexico. It became a part of the United States in 1848 and two years later received a territorial form of government. In 1863 the western part of the territory was formed into the territory of Arizona. In 1910 Congress passed the Enabling Act, admitting the territories of New Mexico and Arizona, and in 1912 President Taft issued his proclamations admitting them to the Union.

496. The National Census of 1910. In 1910 the thirteenth national census of the United States was taken and showed a population of 93,402,151. If the inhabitants of the Philippine islands, Guam, Tutuila, and the Canal Zone are included, the total number of people under our flag in 1910 was 101,100,000.

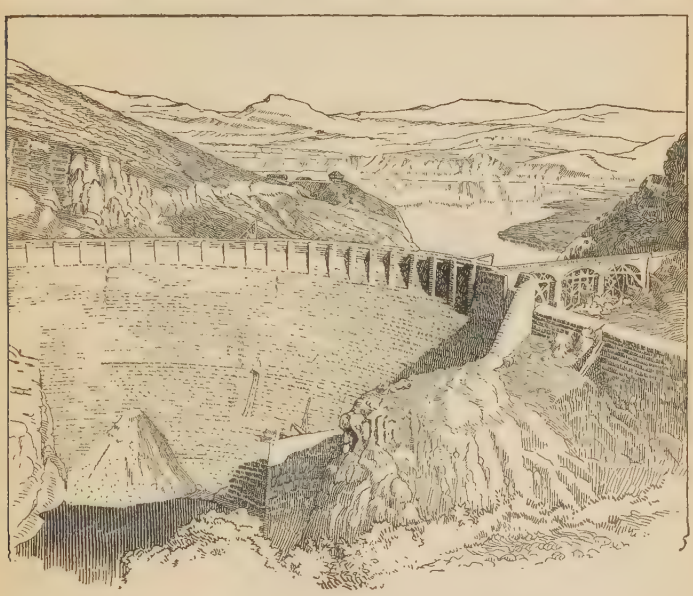
497. Land Laws and Conservation of Natural Resources. It has always been the policy of our government to aid the development of the country by granting to colonists the opportunity of securing homes on the public lands of the West. In 1862 the famous Homestead Act was passed (see sect. 391).

The rapid growth of the West under the Homestead Act is one of the most astonishing facts in history. Towns sprang up in all the Western section, territories were organized and quickly became states, railroads were built, millions of bushels of wheat and corn were sent to the Eastern states and to Europe; where but a few years before the bison had roamed were now to be seen the homes of millions of happy and prosperous American citizens.

The passing of the public land area, however, has called the attention of the country to the necessity of preserving our natural resources. By the Reclamation Act of 1902 Congress provided for the building of great dams and ditches to irrigate the arid regions of the West.

While the arid area in America is great, the area that has too much water is even greater. The bogs, swamps, and marshes of the United States are equal to one twenty-fifth of its entire area. If these swamps were drained, they would give land of the richest value equal in extent to Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois.

These are but a few of the problems that are to be solved in the great conservation movement throughout our nation.



SALT RIVER IRRIGATION DAM IN ARIZONA

498. The Development of Canada. As we have seen, Canada was first explored and developed by the French under Cartier, Champlain, Frontenac, and Jesuit and Franciscan missionaries. In 1629 the Company of New France under Cardinal Richelieu attempted to colonize the country, but its efforts ended in failure. In 1663 Canada became a royal province with a government on the model of France itself. The wars between the French and English in America, extending from 1689 to 1763, resulted in

the loss of Canada by France. The entire country was ceded to England. In 1774 a government was organized under the Quebec Act. One year later the American Revolution began. The American colonists attempted to capture Canada and separate it from Great Britain. The attempt was a failure, as the Americans were repulsed at Quebec (December 31, 1775) and the Canadians refused to give up their allegiance to Great Britain. Soon after the outbreak of the Revolution the Loyalists, or Tories, to the number of forty thousand, fled to Canada and settled there.

In 1791 Canada was divided at the Ottawa River into Upper and Lower Canada. Under the Act of Union of 1840 the provinces were again united. Twenty-seven years later, in 1867, the Dominion of Canada came into existence by an act of Parliament of Great Britain. Under this act the Dominion was given virtual self-government, while to each province was granted direction of its own affairs in so far as they did not conflict with the general laws of the Dominion. The Dominion comprised the provinces of Ontario, Quebec, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia. The development of the West as a result of extensive railroad building has since added Manitoba, British Columbia, Alberta, and Saskatchewan. Prince Edward Island joined the Dominion in 1873. Newfoundland never entered the Canadian confederation. It remained a province until 1917, when it was created the Dominion of Newfoundland.

499. Reciprocity with Canada. The Payne Tariff Act of 1909, by its high duties on the necessaries of life, aroused widespread discontent among the people. To relieve somewhat this burden of high-tariff taxation President Taft arranged a reciprocity treaty with Canada for closer trade relations which would facilitate the exchange of manufactured goods and food products. Despite the strenuous opposition of the high-tariff advocates the measure was passed by Congress and was later approved for Canada by the Canadian Premier Laurier, who appealed to his country to sustain him in the measure. He

was defeated, however, and the new Conservative party which came into power in Canada dropped the reciprocity treaty.

500. Presidential Election of 1912. In the presidential election of 1912 the Republicans renominated President Taft. Roosevelt tried to secure the Republican nomination, but failed, and was nominated on a so-called Progressive ticket.

The Democrats nominated Woodrow Wilson, who was governor of New Jersey. The Democratic platform recommended a reduction of the tariff, an income tax, and direct election of United States senators.

Wilson secured an overwhelming victory. As the Senate and House of Representatives became Democratic the entire government was now controlled by the Democrats for the second time since the outbreak of the Civil War.

SUMMARY

The leading events of Taft's administration were:
The Payne Tariff Act of 1909.
The great celebrations at Seattle and New York.
Admission of New Mexico and Arizona to the Union in 1912.
The conservation question.
Reciprocity movement with Canada.

Dates to be remembered:

1898. War with Spain (beginning of American colonial expansion).

Dates for reference:

1898. Battle of Manila (May 1).
1900. Gold Standard Act.
1904. Cession to the United States of the Canal Zone.
1906. Admission of Oklahoma.
1912. Admission of Arizona and New Mexico.

Map work:

On a map trace the route of a United States transport from San Francisco to Manila, with stops at Honolulu and Guam.

On a map show the position of San Juan, Porto Rico; Santiago and Havana in Cuba.

REVIEW EXAMINATION

1. What are the principal industries of the Pacific coast states? Show the relation of the transcontinental railroad to the development of these states. What advantage comes to the Pacific coast from the Panama Canal?

2. What are the three most important island possessions of the United States? How was each acquired?

3. What did each of the following invent: Morse, Fulton, McCormick, Howe, Ericsson, Edison, Bell, Whitney.

4. What is meant by the Hague Tribunal? What was the first American case before it?

5. Explain the following terms: protective tariff; strict and loose construction; naturalization; internal improvements; conservation of natural resources.

6 Name two great American philanthropists and tell something each has done. Name two poets, one novelist, and two writers of prose, and tell something each has written in connection with the history of our country.

7. Compare approximately, with reference to area, population, and number of states, the United States at the present time with the United States in 1790.

8. Contrast the two branches of the national Congress as to (*a*) number of members; (*b*) length of term; (*c*) territory represented by the members.

9. What advantages for farming has irrigation over natural rainfall and what disadvantages?

10. Explain two of the following: civil service; Homestead Act; boycott; treaty; treason; strike.

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CHAPTER XV

THE UNITED STATES AS A WORLD POWER

"In the short space of our national life, we have lived more dreams and put more of them into execution for the benefit of the world, acted a more thrilling drama on the stage of life, fought and bled in a more epic struggle for liberty and democracy . . . than was given to the heroes of Marathon or Salamis to face." — J. C. REVILLE, S. J.

WILSON'S FIRST ADMINISTRATION,[1] 1913–1917

501. New Amendments. In 1913 two amendments were added to the Constitution, the first since 1870. The Sixteenth Amendment allows an income tax to be laid without apportionment among the several states and without regard to any census enumeration.[2] Under the Underwood Tariff Act an income tax was passed in 1913. The Seventeenth Amendment provides for the direct election of United States senators by the people. Up to this time the members of the Senate were elected by the legislatures of the various states.[3]

502. The Department of Labor. In 1903 the Department of Commerce and Labor was added to the president's cabinet. To study more fully the problems of labor and to meet the changing conditions in the world of industry the Department of Labor was separated (1913) from the Department of Commerce. The new secretary took his seat for the first time in President Wilson's cabinet.

[1] Woodrow Wilson was born in Virginia in 1856. He studied law and later became a professor in Princeton University, of which he was elected president in 1902. In 1910 he was elected governor of New Jersey. He was elected president of the United States in 1912 and was reëlected in 1916. On the same ticket with him Thomas R. Marshall was elected vice president in 1912 and reëlected in 1916.

[2] See Constitution, Section 9.

[3] See Constitution, Section 3.

503. The Underwood Tariff Act. The Tariff Commission. In the presidential election of 1912, as we have seen, the tariff was one of the vital issues of the campaign. The Democrats, when they came into power, proceeded at once to carry out their pledges of a real reduction in tariff schedules. The Underwood act was signed by President Wilson, October 3, 1913.

WOODROW WILSON

The history of the tariff has been one of constant fluctuation, a contest between the advocates of a tariff for revenue only and a protective tariff. The first tariff, of 1789, averaged 7½ per cent ad valorem and was largely a revenue tariff. In 1816 the protective feature came to the front, when the rates in some schedules were advanced as high as 35 per cent. The tariff of 1824 and the "tariff of abominations" of 1828 still further increased the duties. The action of South Carolina and other Southern states which threatened to nullify the tariff led to the Compromise Tariff of 1833, which brought about a gradual reduction of duties to 20 per cent. In 1842 the tariff was again made protective, but the Walker Tariff of 1846 again lowered the duties. It was "a revenue tariff with incidental protection." The Morrill Tariff of 1861 was protective. The need of revenue during the Civil War caused advances in the tariff from time to time. It was supposed that the high tariff rates would be lowered after the war, but the protective interests prevented this action. The tariff act of 1883 left the tariff about as high as it was during the Civil War. In 1890 the McKinley Tariff came out unqualifiedly for very high protective duties, but in

1894 the Wilson Tariff reduced the duties somewhat. The Dingley Tariff of 1897 was again highly protective, as was the Payne Tariff of 1909. In 1913 the Underwood Tariff reduced the duties to the lowest point in half a century and greatly enlarged the free list. By the action of Congress in 1916 a permanent tariff commission of six members was appointed to study the tariff question in its relation to our business life. This commission will make suggestions to Congress for any changes in the tariff laws that may be called for by the business conditions of the United States in their relation to foreign countries. It is hoped that the tariff will hereafter be a business rather than a political question.

504. The Federal Reserve Currency Act. From time to time there have been disastrous panics or financial crises in the United States — as in 1837, 1857, 1873, 1893, and 1907. Again, the supply of currency in various sections of the country has been inadequate when it was most needed, as in the West during the great harvest season.

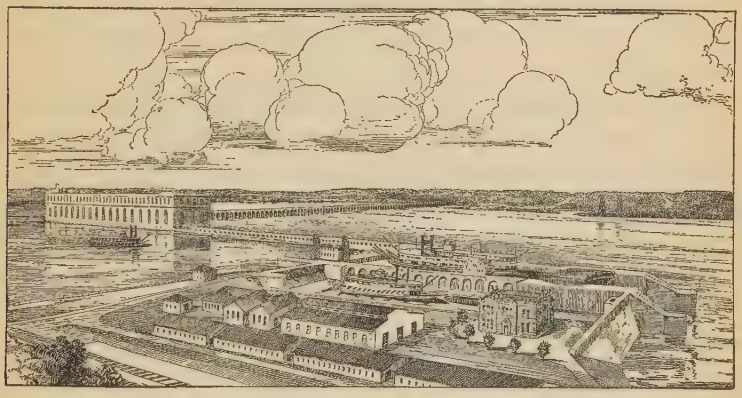
To prevent further panics, and if possible to place our national finances in a stable yet more elastic condition, Congress passed (1913) the Federal Reserve Act. This provides for a General Reserve Bank, with branch banks established in various cities of the country.

This General Reserve Bank with its branches is made up of national banks, state banks, and trust companies. This new Federal Reserve system has been a valuable aid in placing our finances on a sound basis. It prevented a financial crisis at the outbreak of the great world war and has secured to the various sections of the country ample financial aid in times of need.

505. Great Industrial Works. The Keokuk Dam. The Cape Cod Canal. Near Keokuk, Iowa, the Mississippi River forms rapids as it flows down through a narrow valley between high bluffs that form its banks. To utilize the water power created by the mighty river at this point, a high dam almost a mile in length has been built across the river. A power house generates

electricity for light, heat, and traction. The electric current is carried on wires to many great cities of the Middle West. By means of a large lock built in connection with the dam, vessels are now enabled to pass quickly up and down the river.

Another work of great importance is the Cape Cod Canal. This canal is eight miles long and is at sea level. It extends across Cape Cod between Barnstable Bay and Buzzards Bay.



THE KEOKUK DAM

506. The Panama Tolls Act. Under the Clayton-Bulwer treaty of 1850 (see sect. 345, note) it was provided that neither the United States nor Great Britain should exercise any authority over any state of Central America or any exclusive control of any canal that might be built in that section. This treaty was superseded in 1901 by the Hay-Pauncefote treaty, which provided that the United States should enjoy the sole right to construct and maintain a canal across the Isthmus, giving all nations equal terms in its use. In the Panama Canal Act of 1911 it was provided that vessels of the United States should be exempt from the payment of tolls. It was believed by many that this was a violation of the Hay-Pauncefote treaty. In 1914 Congress repealed this provision, and all vessels may now use the Canal on terms of equality.

507. Important Legislation. To promote the development of the territory of Alaska, Congress passed (1914) a law for the construction by our government of a railroad, one thousand miles in length, from the coast inland to the Yukon River. This railroad will open up the great coal and timber tracts of Alaska, but government supervision will prevent waste of these valuable national resources.

The Clayton Anti-Trust Act and the Federal Trade Commission Law are designed to prevent unfair competition and restraint of trade.

508. New Political Movements. The Initiative, Referendum, Recall, and Direct Primary. Since the beginning of the twentieth century many new political movements have been proposed and adopted which change to a marked degree the former systems of government. The general trend of the new legislation is to allow the people to have a more direct influence on the legislators they have chosen.

The Initiative is a measure which gives the voters the right to begin or initiate legislation. When a certain small number (generally five per cent) of the people desire a bill to be considered, they can petition the legislature, and the legislators are thereby required to introduce and consider the bill.

Under the Referendum a certain number of voters can petition the legislature to refer any important act to the people to be accepted or rejected by them before it can become a law.

The Recall means that the people may demand the recall of a public official. The Recall demands, therefore, another election, and the official, if the required number of votes is cast against him, will thereby be removed from office irrespective of the time for which he had been at first elected.

The Direct Primary, wherever adopted, gives to the people an opportunity to vote directly by ballot for the nomination of officials. It supersedes the earlier method of sending delegates to a convention which made the nominations.

509. Municipal Problems. Commission Form of Government. Among the problems that from time to time have confronted the people has been the proper government of our cities, for it is generally believed that there has been much corruption and great lack of efficiency in our municipal rule.

The government of most of our cities is made up of a mayor, a board of aldermen, and a common council. In a small way it is similar to the three departments in our national and state governments.

As a result of the Galveston disaster in 1900, a commission of experts was given charge of rebuilding the city. So wonderfully efficient and economical was the work of this commission that it became the municipal governing body. Many other cities — led particularly by Des Moines, which worked out a very acceptable plan — have since adopted this so-called commission form of city government to replace the older plan of mayor, board of aldermen, and common council.

510. Safeguarding the Public Health. Great strides in the safeguarding of the public health have been made by national, state, and city health officers. Our ports are guarded against the introduction of diseases from abroad, the states at times enforce quarantine laws against other states, and the tenement-house requirements of the cities have been framed to prevent the development and spread of disease.

A study of the diseases that formerly in epidemics swept away whole populations has materially reduced the death rate year by year and nearly put an end to epidemics. Vaccination has caused almost the entire disappearance of smallpox, once so common and so fatal. The discovery of the fact that a certain type of mosquito spreads yellow fever has aided in conquering that dreaded disease. The bubonic plague that in 1348, as the so-called "Black Death," swept away half of the people of Europe has been controlled since it was discovered that rats and ground squirrels carry the fleas that spread the disease. The ravages of tuberculosis are being lessened by

letting fresh air and sunshine into the dark tenements and by requiring the new houses to have a certain amount of air and light space. The number of cases of typhoid fever has been greatly reduced by various measures. The campaign against the house fly, which bears the germ of typhoid from place to place, has been productive of excellent results. Probably the leading causes of typhoid fever are impure milk and impure water. To secure pure milk, the dairies are now carefully examined and clean conditions are required. To secure pure water, millions of dollars are expended on great engineering feats.

511. Water Supply for Cities. The constantly increasing population of our cities has brought to a head the necessity of arranging for a better water supply.

In 1895 the state of Massachusetts took steps to secure for Boston and adjacent cities a pure water supply for years to come. A commission was appointed to purchase extensive tracts of land near Mount Wachusett, fifty miles from Boston. Towns and villages were removed, a great dam erected, and an artificial lake, miles in extent, created. So successful was the work here that the idea spread rapidly to other parts of the country.

For many years the city of Chicago secured its water from intakes far out in Lake Michigan. Since much of the sewage of Chicago was carried into Lake Michigan by the Chicago River, it was difficult to keep the lake water free from impurities. A brilliant engineering suggestion was made. As a very slight elevation of land — about fifteen feet — formed the watershed between the Chicago River flowing east into Lake Michigan and the Des Plaines River flowing southwest into the Illinois River, it was proposed to cut a canal forty miles in length and sufficiently deep to cause the Chicago River to run westward into the Des Plaines, which would carry the water into the Illinois and thence into the Mississippi. In this way the waters of Lake Michigan would flow westward through the Chicago River in a strong current, carrying the

sewage with them into the Des Plaines and Illinois Rivers, away from Lake Michigan. The plan was carried to a successful finish in 1906. Eventually the canal may form a waterway for barges and vessels from Chicago to the Gulf of Mexico.

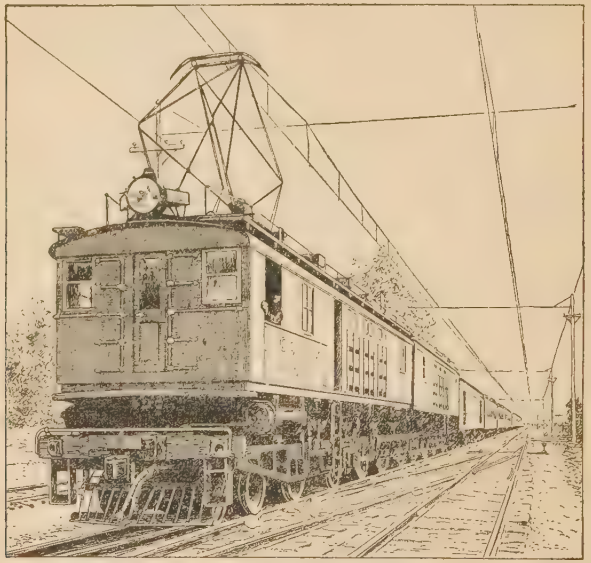
The city of Los Angeles has built an aqueduct two hundred and fourteen miles long, carrying from the mountains into the city an unlimited quantity of the purest water. The flowing stream can also be utilized to develop water power which will furnish electric light and traction.

The greatest engineering feat in connection with the water supply of a great city is the Catskill Aqueduct for New York. The Aqueduct extends one hundred and twenty-seven miles to the furthest point. Four miles above West Point it is led through solid granite under the Hudson River at a depth of one thousand one hundred feet. By means of tunnels the water is carried far underground to all parts of the city. The Catskill Aqueduct is second only to the Panama Canal as one of the world's greatest engineering projects and is the greatest waterworks system in the history of the world, ancient or modern.

512. The Growth of Electric Traction. The increasing use of tunnels and the public demand for purer air is bringing about the change from coal locomotives to electric motors on railroads.

The New York Central Railroad has already changed to electric traction on its main line from New York City northward. The New York, New Haven and Hartford Railroad uses electric motors on a long stretch of its system. The Pennsylvania Railroad, in its great tunnel under the Hudson River, uses only electric power. One of the greatest steps forward in the change to electricity is the electrical equipment of the Chicago, Milwaukee, and St. Paul Railroad through the Rockies. The mountain torrents and swift rivers furnish the electric power. The largest electric motors in the world have been installed upon the system, and for hundreds of miles the trains are carried over mountain ranges by the clean, smokeless electric motors.

513. The Panama Expositions. To celebrate the opening of the Panama Canal two expositions were held in 1915 on the Pacific coast. The Panama-California Exposition was opened at San Diego, where the great explorer Cabrillo first landed. As was fitting, the buildings were in the style of the Spanish



THE FIRST THREE-THOUSAND-VOLT DIRECT-CURRENT LOCOMOTIVE

More powerful than any steam locomotive; one hundred and twelve feet long, weighs two hundred and sixty tons, uses no coal, requires no water, has no boiler, and carries no tender

missions, in recognition of the early Franciscan missionaries who here began to Christianize and civilize the Indians.

The Panama-Pacific Exposition was opened at San Francisco. For two miles along the water front near the Golden Gate the beautiful buildings extended, covering six hundred and thirty-five acres. Exhibits from all parts of the world showed the marvelous progress that has been made in recent years in all lines of human activity.

514. Development of the Automobile Industry. One of the most remarkable commercial developments of the last fifteen years is the automobile industry. The automobile of to-day was rendered possible by the perfecting, in Europe, of the gasoline motor. The automobile industry in the United States was of comparatively slow growth at the outset, but in recent years automobile manufacturing has increased enormously. Besides pleasure cars large gasoline motor trucks have been developed to carry great loads for which formerly many horses were required. Gasoline tractors are being used more and more for plowing and harrowing on the great farms of the West, and motor boats are found on all our waters. The automobile has caused a general recognition of the need for good roads, which are now being built in all parts of the country.[1] Among the many cities that have been especially benefited by the automobile industry are Detroit, Cleveland, and Toledo.

515. The New York Barge Canal. We have seen how largely the Erie Canal (see sect. 292) aided in building up the wonderful commerce of the state and city of New York by affording a direct waterway from the Hudson River to the Great Lakes. It was long evident, however, that the canal needed to be so enlarged as to carry barges of much greater capacity in order to meet the growing needs of commerce. At a cost of about one hundred and thirty million dollars the state of New York has enlarged the canal and its branches. The Barge Canal, as it is now called, with its branches, is almost eight hundred miles in length.

[1] The agitation for good roads has led to the great undertakings known as the Lincoln Highway and the Dixie Highway. The Lincoln Highway, built in memory of President Lincoln, is to extend from New York to San Francisco, and when completed will be the longest road in the world. The Dixie Highway will connect some of the leading Northern cities with the growing cities of the South. As the great Roman highways joined and bound together the cities of Europe, these splendidly built new roads will facilitate quick communication, especially by automobile, between the East and the West, the North and the South, and will permit the quick movement of the products of the farms to the cities.

516. The Record of American Inventions. Since the United States Patent Office was established in 1791 American inventive genius has developed more great and useful inventions than all the rest of the world combined. So fertile of new ideas is the American brain that no less than two hundred inventions a day are now patented in Washington. The following is a list of some of the epoch-making inventions since the foundation of the republic:

Cotton gin	Whitney, 1793
Steamboat	Fulton, 1807
Telegraph	Morse, 1832
Reaper and mower	McCormick, 1834
Revolver	Colt, 1835
Screw propeller	Ericsson, 1836
Vulcanized rubber	Goodyear, 1844
Sewing machine	Howe, 1846
Steam cylinder press	Hoe, 1847
Typewriter	Sholes and Glidden, 1866
Air brake	Westinghouse, 1868
Welt machine	Goodyear, 1871
Railway block signals	Robinson, 1872
Automatic car coupler	Janney, 1873
Barbed-wire machine	Glidden, 1875
Telephone	Bell, 1876
Talking machine	Edison, 1878
Electric-arc lamp	Brush, 1879
Incandescent lamp	Edison, 1880
Trolley car	Van Depoele and Sprague, 1884–1887
Cash register	Patterson, 1885
Linotype machine	Mergenthaler, 1885
Induction motor	Tesla, 1887
Portable roll-film camera	Eastman, 1888
Adding machine	Burroughs, 1888
Aëroplane	Wright, 1903

517. The Mexican Civil War. In 1910 a rebellion, under Francisco Madero, broke out in Mexico against the president, Porfirio Diaz. Diaz was compelled to leave the country, and Madero was elected president. One year later he was

overthrown and, with the vice president, was murdered. Huerta[1] now took possession of the government, but revolutionary armies arose on every side. He asked for recognition by the United States, but it was refused, and he was finally compelled to resign. Carranza, as "first chief," became the ruling power, but the country was still ravaged by different armies. Churches, convents, and homes were pillaged, and the inhabitants murdered or grossly maltreated. In 1916 peace was, to a certain extent, restored in Mexico.

518. Legislation to aid the Farmer. One of the most far-reaching and beneficial laws of recent years is the Federal Farm Loan Act, or Rural Credits Act as it is frequently called. As almost everything we eat and much of what we wear comes from the soil, it is very important that agriculture should be efficient and prosperous. A century ago in the United States, of every one hundred persons in our population eighty were on the farms producing food for the twenty persons who lived in cities or did not produce foodstuffs in any form. Under these conditions food was plentiful and cheap. With the growth of the cities and the gradual drift to them of young men and women from the farms, a great change has been brought about. To-day of every hundred of our population only thirty-seven are on the farms, and sixty-three live in the cities. The result is ever-increasing prices for food.

519. Federal Farm Loan Act. Other Progressive Legislation. The new Federal Farm Loan Act (July 17, 1916) was designed to aid the farmer. It established a board of five members and divided the country into twelve Federal districts. Each of these districts has a Federal Land Bank. Under the act farmers organized into local credit unions, and through these unions loans are secured from the Federal Land Bank.

As a valuable aid to the Farm Loan Act two other laws have been passed to assist the farmer, who is the food producer of the nation. The Good Roads Law gives Federal aid in

[1] Huerta (ware'tah).

building good roads and thereby draws closer together the farm and the market. The act increases the value of the farm and reduces the operating expenses of the farmer. The Agricultural Education Act provides a means for the Federal government to act with the states in the scientific education of the farmer. This will enable him to produce more on each acre and to increase the number of acres under cultivation. All these acts show that the farmer is now receiving the fullest consideration in all matters of national legislation.

520. The Federal Child Labor Law. Eight-Hour Railroad Law. In 1916 the Federal Child Labor Law was passed to give the fullest protection to children working in mills, shops, factories, canneries, or mines, but it has been declared (1918) to be unconstitutional.

In the summer of 1916 a nation-wide strike on all our railways was averted by the Adamson Eight-Hour Railroad Law which sought by act of Congress to adjust the hours of labor and wages to be paid. The brotherhoods accepted the action of Congress as a satisfactory solution of the problem, and the nation-wide railway strike, with its appalling consequences, was averted.

521. Growth of Woman Suffrage. An important movement in political life has been the rapidly increasing growth of woman suffrage. This movement was preceded by a general widening of all spheres of activity for women. Many universities and colleges that were formerly closed to women were opened to them, and many colleges solely for women were established. Women have now been admitted to most of the professions, and new laws have given them rights to property which they have never before enjoyed.

The movement for suffrage for women began in the West. Kansas gave them the right to vote on school matters as early as 1861. Wyoming gave them full suffrage in 1869 on equal terms with men; Colorado followed in 1893; Idaho and Utah in 1896; and Washington, California, Arizona, Kansas, Oregon,

Nevada, Montana, and the territory of Alaska followed. In Illinois they have partial suffrage. In 1917 the state of New York gave them full suffrage.

522. The Election of 1916. In the presidential election of 1916 the Democrats renominated President Woodrow Wilson and Vice President Thomas R. Marshall. The Republicans nominated Charles E. Hughes for president and Charles W. Fairbanks for vice president. The leading issues of the campaign were the progressive legislation of the Wilson administration and the peace and prosperity of the country. In the election the Democrats were successful and President Wilson and Vice President Marshall were reëlected.

SUMMARY

The leading events of Wilson's first administration (1913–1917) were:

The addition (1913) to the Constitution of the Sixteenth and Seventeenth Amendments.

The creation (1913) of the Department of Labor with a seat in the cabinet.

The Underwood Tariff Act of 1913.

The passage of the Federal Reserve Currency Act.

The building of great industrial works — the Keokuk Dam and the Cape Cod Canal.

The completion of the Panama Canal in 1914.

The passage of the Panama Tolls Act.

Legislation to develop the wonderful resources of Alaska.

The Clayton Anti-Trust Act and Federal Trade Commission Law.

The development of new political movements — the Initiative, Referendum, Recall, and Direct Primary.

The expositions of 1915 at San Francisco and San Diego.

The Mexican Civil War.

Enactment of the Income Tax Law.

The Federal Farm Loan Act, Good Roads Law, Agricultural Education Act, Federal Child Labor Law, and Eight-Hour Labor Law.

The rapid growth of woman suffrage.

Wilson's Second Administration (1917–1921)

523. The Parcel Post and Airplane Post. Although foreign governments in their postal systems had for years cared for the transportation of merchandise, up to a certain weight, the Congress of the United States did not pass a parcel-post law until 1913, owing largely to the opposition of the express companies. The law allows packages up to a considerable weight to be transported by the postal authorities.

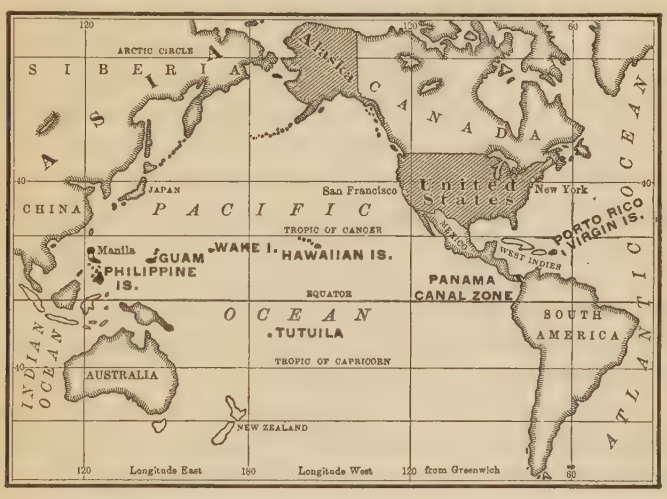
In May, 1918, the postal system was enlarged by the introduction of an airplane service between leading cities.

524. Protectorates in the Caribbean. Purchase of the Virgin Islands. The Panama Canal has made the region of the Caribbean of the greatest importance, as through these waters lies the direct route to and from the canal.[1] Among the islands that fringe the Caribbean is the large island of Haiti, the western portion of which is the republic of Haiti and the eastern portion the republic of Santo Domingo. President Grant in 1869 had tried by treaty to annex Santo Domingo, but the United States Senate refused to confirm the treaty. Revolutions occurred frequently, until in 1907 the United States by treaty took over the financial direction of the republic. We collect the revenues and pay the creditors, who are especially numerous in France. A similar arrangement has been necessary in Haiti, where a revolution in 1915 overthrew the rulers

[1] To put an end to the revolutions directed by dictators in Latin-America, President Wilson in an epoch-making address at Mobile announced to all Latin-America that the United States would never again recognize any government founded on assassination and revolution. Without the recognition of the United States it would be practically impossible for dictators to sell bonds and secure money. It is therefore significant that since this Mobile address there have been few dictators arising in Latin-America. President Wilson also assured the republics of Latin-America that the United States would never again seize a foot of territory belonging to them. This policy, and the invitation to Argentina, Brazil, and Chile (the famous A. B. C. conference at Niagara Falls in 1913) to confer for the settlement of the Mexican trouble, has allayed on the part of the Latin republics the feeling of fear of the United States arising largely from our part in waging the war against Mexico and our share in the Panama revolution.

of the republic. To protect lives and property the United States has since had charge of its financial and police affairs.

In accordance with this policy of guarding Caribbean interests, the United States purchased in 1917 from Denmark for twenty-five million dollars the Danish West Indies, or Virgin Islands, situated a short distance northeast of Porto Rico.



THE UNITED STATES AND ITS POSSESSIONS (SHADED AND BLACK AREAS)

This gives the United States ownership of the excellent harbor of St. Thomas and prevents the islands from falling into the hands of any hostile European power.

525. The World War. The war which all Europe had been fearing for decades came at last in 1914. On June 28 of that year the Crown Prince of Austria and his wife were murdered in Bosnia[1] as the result, it was claimed, of a Serbian conspiracy.

[1] The Balkan states of Bosnia and Herzegovina had been annexed by Austria in 1908. Serbia had hoped to unite these and other Balkan Slav principalities to herself and form a great Serbian state. The action of Austria aroused great resentment in Serbia. The Archduke Francis Ferdinand, Crown Prince of Austria, was warned not to go to Sarajevo, the capital of Bosnia, because of the intense hatred of Austria which many there held, but he disregarded the warning and on his arrival was assassinated (June 28, 1914).

On July 23, 1914, Austria sent an ultimatum to Serbia. Although if she had accepted it, it would have practically ended her national life, Serbia agreed to all the severe conditions except one and she asked to have that referred to the Hague Tribunal. Austria refused and at once declared war (July 28) on Serbia. Russia immediately prepared to go to the aid of Serbia. Germany was in alliance[1] with Austria and came to the aid of Austria by declaring war (August 1) on Russia. As France was allied to Russia, war was declared on France by Germany (August 3). To crush France at once Germany attempted to pass through Belgium, a neutral country. The Belgians resisted and for a few days held the Germans in check, — long enough to allow the French armies to be gathered. The attack on Belgium brought England into the war against Germany. The Great War now became a world catastrophe.

526. The United States and the World War. On August 18, 1914, President Wilson issued a proclamation of neutrality, asking the people of the United States to "act and speak in the true spirit of neutrality." It was thought that the United States, separated by three thousand miles of ocean, would not be drawn into the great conflict. The close relations, however, of nations to-day in world affairs, the ships sailing daily from shore to shore, the cables and wireless sending messages from people to people, the need of munitions and foodstuffs by the warring countries, soon made it evident that it would be very difficult for the United States to keep out of the war. As soon as war was declared, Great Britain, with its vast navy, blockaded the coast of Germany and no German vessel could leave a harbor anywhere without danger of capture. So strict became this blockade that even neutral vessels were searched, which

[1] An alliance had been formed between Germany, Austria, and Italy as early as 1882. It was called the Triple Alliance. France and Russia made an alliance in 1891 and were joined by Great Britain in 1904, forming the Triple Entente, now generally called the Allies. Italy claimed its alliance was merely for defensive war while this was an aggressive war. She refused to aid the Triple Alliance and finally (May 23, 1915) joined the Allies.

led to a vigorous protest to England by the President of the United States as being a violation of international law. Germany retaliated to the decree of Great Britain by developing a powerful fleet of submarines, which sped forth unobserved, armed with the deadly torpedo, and attacked neutral vessels as well as those of their enemies.

On May 7, 1915, to the horror and amazement of the world the large English passenger steamer the *Lusitania* was torpedoed, without warning, by a submarine off the coast of Ireland with a loss of eleven hundred and fifty-two lives, among them being many women and children. Of the lost one hundred and fourteen were American citizens. Scores of merchant vessels fell a prey to the active German submarine. President Wilson protested to Germany against this method of submarine warfare wherein the lives of passengers and crews could not be safeguarded as required by international law. On September 1, 1915, Germany gave her pledge that her submarines would not sink liners "without warning and without providing for the safety of the lives of non-combatants, provided that the liners do not try to escape or offer resistance." Early in 1917 England extended the lines of her blockade, the more effectively to cut off supplies from Germany. Germany issued (January 31, 1917) a new proclamation extending the war zone[1] and declaring that every ship without regard to its character or the safety of those on board would be sunk. The United States was to be permitted to send one boat a week, properly marked, to Falmouth, England, upon a certain specified route. Declaring this proclamation to be a breach of the earlier pledge of Germany and a violation of the law of nations and the principles of humanity, President Wilson gave the German ambassador, Count von Bernstorff, his passports (February 3, 1917).

[1] Two weeks earlier the German Foreign Secretary Zimmerman had written a letter to the German Minister in Mexico which was intercepted. This letter suggested that if war was declared between Germany and the United States, Mexico might join with Japan in attacking the United States and would receive as a reward Arizona, New Mexico, and Texas.

527. Declaration of War, April 6, 1917. After two months of unrestricted submarine warfare President Wilson went before Congress (April 2, 1917) and in the course of his address said:

> The new policy has swept every restriction aside. Vessels of every kind, whatever their flag, their character, their cargo, their destination, their errand, have been ruthlessly sent to the bottom without warning and without thought of help or mercy for those on board, the vessels of friendly neutrals along with those of belligerents. Even hospital ships and ships carrying relief to the sorely bereaved and stricken people of Belgium . . . have been sunk with the same reckless lack of compassion or of principle. . . . The world must be made safe for democracy. Its peace must be planted upon the tested foundations of political liberty.

In response to the President's request Congress declared war on Germany (April 6, 1917).[1] For the first time since the War of 1812 the United States became involved in war with a first-class power.

528. The United States at War. The United States at once prepared for the great struggle. Conscription was voted (May, 1917) and ten million men between the ages of twenty-one and thirty inclusive were registered. From this body an army was drawn by lot. Immense cantonments were constructed, munition factories developed, supplies in untold quantities prepared, the navy placed in a condition of complete preparedness, airplanes manufactured, and enormous shipbuilding plants erected. The government took charge of all the railroads of the country. Administrators of food and fuel were appointed to fix prices and control distribution. Congress voted billions of dollars for war expenses, and the people through Liberty Loans poured a stream of money into the national treasury.[2] So effective were all these measures that

[1] See Leonard, War Addresses of Woodrow Wilson.

War on Austria-Hungary was not declared until December 7, 1917.

[2] The four departments of State, Treasury, War, and Navy in these critical days of war were under the efficient direction of Secretaries Lansing, McAdoo, Baker, and Daniels.

THE WESTERN FRONT IN THE WORLD WAR

the development of the United States from a nation at peace to a nation at war was accomplished with a measure of success unsurpassed in history. By the autumn of 1918 more than two million men with supplies had been safely borne in camouflaged transports across three thousand miles of ocean infested with German submarines and were on the firing line in France under General John J. Pershing. One million six hundred thousand more were in camps in the United States preparing to go abroad. Railroads, wharves, supply depots, barracks, hospitals, and machine shops were constructed in France under the direction of the Americans for our troops.

529. American Soldiers at the Front. The American forces soon after arrival in Europe were distributed at many points of the Western Front. Some were sent to Belgium and some to Italy. Others were ordered to the Marne River. The main body, however, was given control of an area or sector to the east of Metz extending from the Meuse River to the Argonne Forest.[1]

On March 21, 1918, a great German offensive in northeastern France was begun. By pushing back the English and French the Germans threatened for a time the city of Amiens,[2] but the German line was held in check. The bravery of the English and the French prevented the driving of a wedge between the lines of the two nations, which had been the German design. General Ferdinand Foch[3] was appointed commander in chief of the Allied armies, and General Pershing placed (March 28) the entire American army at his command, saying, "All that we have are yours to dispose of them as you will. Others are coming which are as numerous as will be necessary. I have come to say to you that the American people would be proud to be engaged in the greatest battle of history."

The American forces were called into action on the front at Montdidier[4] and proved themselves able not only to hold but also to advance their line. On May 27, 1918, the Germans

[1] Argonne (ahr gone').
[2] Amiens (ah myan').
[3] Foch (fosh).
[4] Montdidier (mon dee dyay').

began another great offensive. They attacked the Allied line between Soissons[1] and Rheims[2] and reached the Marne River. Here the French, English, and Americans grimly stood by their positions. The Americans bravely defended the bridge opposite Château-Thierry[3] and fought with success the battle of Belleau Wood.[4] Further advance of the Germans was prevented, but they were now only forty-four miles from Paris. On June 9 another great attack was launched by the Germans between Soissons and Montdidier with a gain of only a few miles. On July 15 the enemy again made a great forward movement between Soissons and Rheims against Paris. They were met at Château-Thierry and other points by the French and Americans and held in check at the Marne.

530. When the Tide Turned. On July 18 the Allies took the offensive. As the German advance had thrust their line far forward toward the Marne there was an opportunity to press in behind the line and compel a retreat. The Americans and French rushed forward and after severe fighting drove the Germans out of Château-Thierry and the region toward Soissons. It wiped out what military men called the Marne salient, compelling the Germans to retire to straighten their line at a great cost of men and war material.

In the meantime the British to the northwest had also been driving back the enemy and strengthening their hold on the ports of the English Channel. Everywhere on the Western Front General Foch was hammering the German lines. The Belgian coast was captured, and Cambrai, St. Quentin,[5] and Lille[6] fell into the hands of the Allies.

On August 27, 1918, a portion of the American army was face to face with the famous Hindenburg line at a point north of St. Quentin where the St. Quentin canal runs in a tunnel for a distance of three miles through a hill. This Hindenburg

[1] Soissons (swah sohn′).
[2] Rheims (reems or rance).
[3] Chateau-Thierry (sha tow′tye ree′).
[4] Belleau (be low′).
[5] St. Quentin (san kahn tan′).
[6] Lille (leel).

line was constructed here of three deep trenches. Each trench was heavily fortified and was protected by wide barbed-wire entanglements. Behind the line the canal in the tunnel was filled with floats where thousands of German soldiers were held in reserve. The advance of the Americans and British was met by "every deadly contrivance known to modern warfare," — heavy artillery, machine guns, high-explosive shells, bombs, and poison gas. Throwing out a terrible barrage of fire and smoke, the allied army pushed on. Despite heavy losses it destroyed the entanglements and swept the enemy before it, until (September 29) the Hindenburg line was broken and the St. Quentin canal was in the hands of the Allies. It was an ill omen for the future of Germany's military hopes when her great line of defense was broken at its strongest point.

The main part of the American forces had been given charge of the territory around St. Mihiel[1] stretching from the Meuse River to the Argonne Forest. On September 12, 1918, a great northward attack was launched by our troops. With irresistible force they drove the enemy backward. Our design was to reach and cut the German lines of communication through Sedan[2] and Mézières.[3] On November 6, after incessant fighting, the American army stood on the banks of the Meuse River opposite Sedan. The German lines of communication, the life lines of the army, were in control of the American forces.

531. The End of the War. In the meantime important events were occurring at other points. On September 12, the day when the St. Mihiel drive began, under the Selective Draft Act the registration for war of all males between the ages of eighteen and forty-five was ordered by the United States, and thirteen million responded throughout the Union. For the relief of the soldiers and sailors at home and abroad the Red Cross,[4]

[1] St. Mihiel (san mee yell'). [2] Sedan (se dan'). [3] Mézières (may'zee air').

[4] The Red Cross was founded in Geneva, Switzerland, in 1864, by representatives of many European nations, to care for wounded and sick soldiers. Clara Barton organized an American branch and extended its work to include relief not only for the victims of war but also for those involved in great

the Young Men's Christian Association, the Knights of Columbus, the Jewish Welfare Board, and the Salvation Army were doing valiant work.

In the East the English under General Allenby, aided by the Arabs, had captured Palestine, Syria, and Mesopotamia from the Turks. Jerusalem, Damascus, Aleppo, and other historic cities had fallen into their hands, and all danger to the Suez Canal was at an end.

For some months the Germans, Austrians, Bulgarians, and Turks had been sending repeated appeals for peace terms to President Wilson. The President informed them that no terms would even be presented by him to the Allies unless invaded territories were evacuated, the superior military strength of the Allies maintained, and governments set up that, in the belief of the Allies, would respect treaties.

In June, 1918, Austria had begun a widespread attack on the Italian lines, but was badly defeated by General Diaz[1] at the Piave[2] River. Three months later an Allied army made up of French, English, Greeks, Italians, and Serbians under General D'Esperey[3] moved from Salonica against the Bulgarians. The Bulgarian army was completely defeated with great loss. Seeing the hopelessness of her position, Bulgaria surrendered (September 30, 1918). The great alliance which had held unbroken the battle line of the Central Powers from Ostend to Constantinople began to fall to pieces, and it was evident that the morale of the armies of the enemy was gone. Hemmed in on all sides, Turkey yielded to the Allies (October 31, 1918). Austria was torn by internal strife. In her territory republics were being formed by various peoples that had been under her

calamities. Besides its work in the World War, the American society did splendid work in the Spanish-American War, and has rendered invaluable aid in disasters, as those of Johnstown, Galveston, and San Francisco, and in epidemics, as the yellow fever of New Orleans. The original idea of a Red Cross Society appears in 1584, when St. Camillus de Lellis founded at Rome an Order for caring for the sick and for those stricken with the plague.

[1] Diaz (dee'ahss). [2] Piave (pee ah'vay). [3] D'Esperey (des pray').

rule. Defeated by Italy she gave up the struggle (November 4, 1918). Germany now stood alone. With the Allies pressing on without cessation day or night, she realized it was impossible to continue the struggle. She sent a delegation to General Foch asking for an armistice. The terms offered were accepted, and the World War came to an end (November 11, 1918). The Kaiser gave up his throne and fled to Holland.

Arrangements were at once made for the Peace Conference, which held its sessions in Paris. President Wilson went to the Conference with American advisers. The Peace Treaty was signed by Germany, June 28, 1919, exactly five years to a day after the assassination of the Crown Prince of Austria, which led to the declaration of war against Serbia and brought on the world conflict.

It has been estimated that as a result of the war, directly and indirectly, at least ten million human beings lost their lives and about one hundred and ninety-six billion dollars were expended.

Early in September, 1919, Cardinal Mercier, Archbishop of Malines, arrived in the United States from Belgium. The heroic Cardinal received the widespread homage of all the people for his devotion to his country in the trying days of the World War. From many of the great universities and colleges he received honorary degrees, and the freedom of many of the large cities was conferred upon him.

On September 10, 1919, General Pershing, with his staff and thousands of his picked troops, marched down Fifth Avenue in New York, where he was acclaimed by millions of people on his triumphant return from the seat of the war. For a final review of his faithful troops he later marched in Washington along the same route that witnessed in 1865 the march of the veterans at the close of the Civil War. On October 2, 1919, the brave King of Belgium and his Queen arrived as guests of the nation.

532. The Eighteenth Amendment. On January 29, 1919, the Eighteenth Amendment was declared ratified, to take effect one

GENERAL PERSHING LEADING HIS VICTORIOUS TROOPS IN THE FINAL REVIEW AT WASHINGTON

year later. This amendment provides for national prohibition by making unlawful the manufacture, sale, or transportation of intoxicating liquors for beverage purposes.[1]

533. The Conquest of the Air. One of the marvels of the twentieth century has been the development of the heavier-than-air flying machine, or aëroplane, one of which attained in 1920 the terrific speed of over 200 miles per hour.

The crossing of the Atlantic Ocean in an aëroplane has always been the dream of aviators. This feat was accomplished in 1919 by Lieutenant Commander A. C. Read of the United States navy. In a seaplane he flew from Long Island to Halifax and to Newfoundland. Thence his course lay to the Azores, Lisbon, and Plymouth, England.

On June 14, 1919, Captain John Alcock, an English aviator, flew in a biplane, without a stop, from St. John, Newfoundland, to Clifden, Ireland, in sixteen hours and twelve minutes. The distance was 1960 miles.

The United States government now makes constant use of the aëroplane to carry mail between leading cities.

534. The Nineteenth Amendment. Presidential Election. In 1920 the Nineteenth Amendment, granting the right of suffrage to women, was adopted. It provides that "the right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of sex."

In the presidential election of 1920 the Democrats nominated Governor James M. Cox of Ohio for President and Franklin D. Roosevelt of New York for Vice President. The Republicans nominated Senator Warren G. Harding of Ohio for President and Governor Calvin Coolidge of Massachusetts for Vice President. One of the leading issues of the campaign was the question of the ratification of the Treaty of Versailles and the part the United States should take in the League of Nations. In the election the Republicans carried the country by very large majorities, and Harding and Coolidge were elected.

[1] See Constitution, p. xxi.

SUMMARY

The leading events of Wilson's second administration (1917–1921) were:

The introduction of the airplane post.
Purchase of the Virgin Islands in 1917.
Declaration of war with Germany, April 6, 1917.
The Conscription Act.
War with Austria-Hungary, December 7, 1917.
The armistice, November 11, 1918.
The Eighteenth Amendment in 1919.
The transatlantic air flight.
The Nineteenth Amendment in 1920.

Dates to be remembered:

1914. Beginning of the great World War.
1917. Declaration of war with Germany (April 6).
1918. The armistice (November 11).

Important dates for reference:

1914. Battle of the Marne (September 6–10).
1915. Sinking of the *Lusitania* (May 7).
1917. Purchase of the Virgin Islands.
1917. War with Austria-Hungary (December 7).
1918. Surrender of Bulgaria (September 30).
1918. Surrender of Turkey (October 31).

Map work:

On a map trace the farthest advance of the German lines toward Paris.

Trace the German lines at the armistice.

Locate the Marne River, Paris, Château-Thierry, Belleau Wood, Sedan, St. Mihiel, Ypres, Havre, Antwerp, Coblenz, the Aisne River, Calais, Bordeaux.

Harding's Administration,[1] 1921–

535. Peace with Germany and Austria. Even before the Treaty of Versailles had been signed in France, an active opposition arose in the United States to certain features of it, particularly the sections establishing a League of Nations. When a vote was finally taken in the Senate (March 19, 1920), it stood forty-nine in favor and thirty-five against. As the treaty failed to secure the necessary two-thirds vote required by the Constitution, it was defeated. We remained, therefore, technically still at war with Germany and Austria.

After the inauguration of President Harding a joint resolution was passed by Congress declaring peace with Germany and Austria. The resolution was signed by the President, July 2, 1921.

On August 24, 1921, a treaty of peace was signed at Vienna with Austria, and on the following day at Berlin with Germany. Thus the state of war between the United States, Germany, and Austria was at last at an end.

536. The Unknown Soldier. On the third anniversary of Armistice Day, November 11, 1921, the body of an unknown American soldier, which had been brought from the fields of France where he had laid down his life for his country, was buried with all the honors of war in the beautiful new amphitheater of the National Cemetery at Arlington. In the presence of a distinguished gathering the president of the United States delivered an oration in which occur these words:

> Standing to-day, on hallowed ground, conscious that all America has halted to share in the tribute of heart and mind and soul to this fellow-American, and knowing that the world is noting this expression of the Republic's mindfulness, it is fitting to say that his sacrifice

[1] Warren G. Harding was born in Blooming Grove, Ohio, in 1865. He entered journalism and published a paper at Marion, Ohio. In 1915 he was elected to the United States Senate from the state of Ohio. In 1920 he was elected president of the United States.

and that of the millions dead shall not be in vain. There must be, there shall be, the commanding voice of a conscious civilization against armed warfare.

Of the brave men who gave up their lives for their country in the Great War, nearly forty-six thousand have been brought back to the United States for burial. In the cemeteries

THE AMPHITHEATER AT ARLINGTON

on the battlefields of France little crosses mark the resting places of the thousands of others who are to remain where they fell.

538. The Washington Conference. To relieve the people of the world from the crushing burden of taxation caused by war and the preparation for war, Senator Borah of Idaho suggested a program of general disarmament. His idea, limited, however, in its scope, gradually prevailed, and an invitation was issued to leading nations to meet in Washington on the anniversary of Armistice Day, November 11, 1921, to consider the reduction of naval armaments and expenses. It was also hoped to adjust disputed questions relating to the problems of the Pacific Ocean and of the countries of the Far East. A leading

part in the conference was taken by Secretary of State Charles E. Hughes, who acted as chairman.

The following are the more important treaties that were signed in the conference:

1. Four powers — France, Great Britain, Japan, and the United States — agreed to respect each other's territories in the Pacific and to call a conference if at any time anything should arise to endanger peace.

2. Five powers — Great Britain, France, Italy, Japan, and the United States — agreed to limit naval armament. Not only will these nations cease the building of ships beyond the tonnage allotted them, but they promised also to destroy many ships already in use or ready to be launched. It was also agreed that no new fortifications or naval bases shall be built in certain regions of the Pacific.

3. A treaty in respect to China was signed by Belgium, Italy, Japan, Great Britain, France, the Netherlands, Portugal, China, and the United States. This treaty looks to the preservation of China from control by other nations and allows her to work out her national problems in her own way.

4. Italy, France, Japan, Great Britain, and the United States agreed to give up the use of poison gas and to restrict the use of submarines.

5. Japan agreed to withdraw from Shantung and to return to China this province and the former German colony of Kiaochow which had been established within its borders.

It is hoped that as a result of this conference nations will in the future resort to arbitration instead of war to settle disputes, and thereby prevent the cruel waste of human life and property that war always brings in its train.

When Columbus, with the spirit of a Crusader, landed in the New World, broad and noble as his vision was he could never have dreamed of the wondrous epoch he was opening in

the world's history. These pages have given merely a glimpse of what has since been achieved, — the conquest of the wilderness, the establishment of the colonies, the winning of the Revolution, and the founding of the republic with a written constitution, the increase in the number of stars in the flag, and the westward expansion until the whole territory from the Atlantic to the Pacific was under the rule of the great Republic of the West. We have seen the small states develop into great commonwealths, the manufacturing industry grow to magnificent proportions, the mines pour out their wealth of gold and silver and coal and iron, our commerce expand upon every sea, and the railroads spread their network of steel over the whole country. While most of the republics of history have been small, the United States of America has proved that the democratic form of government can be successful on a scale large beyond all precedent. During these years we have seen developed the spirit of liberty — liberty to act within the bounds of the civil and moral law and liberty to worship according to the dictates of one's conscience.

The great problems before the people of the present century are the development and conservation of natural resources, solicitude for the health and well-being of the community, the maintenance of a high standard of living and education, and the nurturing of lofty ideals of political morality. These are a few of the problems that must be solved by the future citizens of the nation.

APPENDIX

DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE[1]

In Congress, July 4, 1776

A DECLARATION BY THE REPRESENTATIVES OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA, IN CONGRESS ASSEMBLED

When, in the course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume, among the powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the laws of nature and of nature's God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.

We hold these truths to be self-evident: — That all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. That, to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed; that, whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the right of the people to alter or to abolish it, and to institute a new government, laying its foundation on such principles, and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their safety and happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate, that governments long established should not be changed for light and transient causes; and accordingly all experience hath shown that mankind are more disposed to suffer while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. But when a long train of abuses and usurpations, pursuing invariably the same object, evinces a design to reduce them under absolute despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such government, and to provide new guards for their future security. Such has been the patient sufferance of these colonies; and such is now the necessity which constrains them to alter their former systems of government. The history of the present King of Great Britain is

[1] The original copy of the Declaration of Independence is kept in the Department of State in Washington. The Declaration was adopted July 4, 1776, and was signed by the members representing the thirteen states August 2, 1776. John Hancock, whose name appears first among the signers, was president of the Congress.

a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in direct object the establishment of an absolute tyranny over these states. To prove this, let facts be submitted to a candid world.

He has refused his assent to laws the most wholesome and necessary for the public good.

He has forbidden his governors to pass laws of immediate and pressing importance, unless suspended in their operation till his assent should be obtained; and when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them.

He has refused to pass other laws for the accommodation of large districts of people, unless those people would relinquish the right of representation in the legislature — a right inestimable to them, and formidable to tyrants only.

He has called together legislative bodies at places unusual, uncomfortable, and distant from the depository of their public records, for the sole purpose of fatiguing them into compliance with his measure.

He has dissolved representative houses repeatedly, for opposing, with manly firmness, his invasions on the rights of the people.

He has refused, for a long time after such dissolutions, to cause others to be elected, whereby the legislative powers, incapable of annihilation, have returned to the people at large for their exercise; the State remaining, in the mean time, exposed to all the dangers of invasions from without, and convulsions within.

He has endeavored to prevent the population of these States; for that purpose obstructing the laws for the naturalization of foreigners; refusing to pass others to encourage their migration hither, and raising the conditions of new appropriations of lands.

He has obstructed the administration of justice, by refusing his assent to laws for establishing judiciary powers.

He has made judges dependent on his will alone for the tenure of their offices, and the amount and payment of their salaries.

He has erected a multitude of new offices, and sent hither swarms of officers to harass our people and eat out their substance.

He has kept among us in times of peace, standing armies, without the consent of our legislatures.

He has affected to render the military independent of, and superior to, the civil power.

He has combined with others to subject us to a jurisdiction foreign to our constitutions, and unacknowledged by our laws; giving his assent to their acts of pretended legislation:

For quartering large bodies of armed troops among us;

For protecting them, by a mock trial, from punishment for any murders which they should commit on the inhabitants of these States;

For cutting off our trade with all parts of the world;

For imposing taxes on us without our consent;

For depriving us, in many cases, of the benefits of trial by jury;

For transporting us beyond seas, to be tried for pretended offences;

For abolishing the free system of English laws in a neighboring province, establishing therein an arbitrary government, and enlarging its boundaries, so as to render it at once an example and fit instrument for introducing the same absolute rule into these colonies;

For taking away our charters, abolishing our most valuable laws, and altering, fundamentally, the forms of our governments;

For suspending our own legislatures, and declaring themselves invested with power to legislate for us in all cases whatsoever.

He has abdicated government here, by declaring us out of his protection, and waging war against us.

He has plundered our seas, ravaged our coasts, burned our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people.

He is at this time transporting large armies of foreign mercenaries to complete the works of death, desolation and tyranny, already begun with circumstances of cruelty and perfidy scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous ages, and totally unworthy the head of a civilized nation.

He has constrained our fellow-citizens, taken captive on the high seas, to bear arms against their country, to become the executioners of their friends and brethren, or to fall themselves by their hands.

He has excited domestic insurrection among us, and has endeavored to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers the merciless Indian savages, whose known rule of warfare is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes, and conditions.

In every stage of these oppressions we have petitioned for redress in the most humble terms; our repeated petitions have been answered only by repeated injury. A prince whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a tyrant, is unfit to be the ruler of a free people.

Nor have we been wanting in our attentions to our British brethren. We have warned them, from time to time, of attempts by their legislature to extend an unwarrantable jurisdiction over us. We have reminded them of the circumstances of our emigration and settlement here. We have appealed to their native justice and magnanimity; and we have conjured them, by the ties of our common kindred, to disavow these usurpations, which would inevitably interrupt our connections and correspondence. They, too, have been deaf to the voice of justice and consanguinity. We must, therefore, acquiesce in the necessity which denounces our separation, and hold them, as we hold the rest of mankind, enemies in war, in peace friends.

We, therefore, the Representatives of the United States of America, in General Congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the name and by the authority of the good people of these colonies, solemnly publish and declare, That these united Colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent states; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all

political connection between them and the state of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved; and that, as free and independent states, they have full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and do all other acts and things which independent states may of right do. And, for the support of this declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honor.

The foregoing Declaration was, by order of Congress, engrossed, and signed by the following members:

JOHN HANCOCK

NEW HAMPSHIRE

Josiah Bartlett
William Whipple
Matthew Thornton

MASSACHUSETTS BAY

Samuel Adams
John Adams
Robert Treat Paine
Elbridge Gerry

RHODE ISLAND

Stephen Hopkins
William Ellery

CONNECTICUT

Roger Sherman
Samuel Huntington
William Williams
Oliver Wolcott

NEW YORK

William Floyd
Philip Livingston
Francis Lewis
Lewis Morris

NEW JERSEY

Richard Stockton
John Witherspoon
Francis Hopkinson
John Hart
Abraham Clark

PENNSYLVANIA

Robert Morris
Benjamin Rush
Benjamin Franklin
John Morton
George Clymer
James Smith
George Taylor
James Wilson
George Ross

DELAWARE

Cæsar Rodney
George Read
Thomas M'Kean

MARYLAND

Samuel Chase
William Paca
Thomas Stone
Charles Carroll, of Carrollton

VIRGINIA

George Wythe
Richard Henry Lee
Thomas Jefferson
Benjamin Harrison
Thomas Nelson, Jr.
Francis Lightfoot Lee
Carter Braxton

NORTH CAROLINA

William Hooper
Joseph Hewes
John Penn

SOUTH CAROLINA

Edward Rutledge
Thomas Hayward, Jr.
Thomas Lynch, Jr.
Arthur Middleton

GEORGIA

Button Gwinnett
Lyman Hall
George Walton

Resolved, That copies of the Declaration be sent to the several assemblies, conventions, and committees, or councils of safety, and to the several commanding officers of the continental troops; that it be proclaimed in each of the United States, at the head of the army.

CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES

PREAMBLE

WE, the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defense, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this CONSTITUTION for the United States of America.

ARTICLE I. LEGISLATIVE DEPARTMENT

SECTION 1. CONGRESS

All legislative powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives.[1]

SECTION 2. HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES

Election of Members. The House of Representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year by the people of the several States, and the electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State Legislature.

Qualifications. No person shall be a representative who shall not have attained to the age of twenty-five years, and been seven years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State in which he shall be chosen.

Apportionment. Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union, according to their respective numbers,[2] which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to service for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three-fifths of all other persons.[3] The actual

[1] The term of each Congress is two years. It assembles on the first Monday in December and "expires at noon of the fourth of March next succeeding the beginning of its second regular session, when a new Congress begins."

[2] The apportionment under the census of 1920 is one representative for every 242,267 persons.

[3] The word "persons" refers to slaves. The word "slave" nowhere appears in the Constitution. This paragraph has been amended (Amendments XIII and XIV) and is no longer in force.

enumeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent term of ten years, in such manner as they shall by law direct. The number of representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty thousand, but each State shall have at least one representative: and until such enumeration shall be made, the State of New Hampshire shall be entitled to choose three; Massachusetts, eight; Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, one; Connecticut, five; New York, six; New Jersey, four; Pennsylvania, eight; Delaware, one; Maryland, six; Virginia, ten; North Carolina, five; South Carolina, five; and Georgia, three.

Vacancies. When vacancies happen in the representation from any State, the executive authority[1] thereof shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies.

Officers. Impeachment. The House of Representatives shall choose their Speaker[2] and other officers; and shall have the sole power of impeachment.

Section 3. Senate

Number of Senators: Election. The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two senators from each State, chosen by the Legislature thereof, for six years; and each senator shall have one vote. [Repealed in 1913 by Amendment XVII.]

Classification. Immediately after they shall be assembled in consequence of the first election, they shall be divided as equally as may be into three classes. The seats of the senators of the first class shall be vacated at the expiration of the second year; of the second class, at the expiration of the fourth year; of the third class, at the expiration of the sixth year, so that one-third may be chosen every second year; and if vacancies happen by resignation, or otherwise, during the recess of the Legislature of any State, the executive[1] thereof may make temporary appointments until the next meeting of the Legislature, which shall then fill such vacancies. [Modified by Amendment XVII.]

Qualifications. No person shall be a senator who shall not have attained to the age of thirty years, and been nine years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State for which he shall be chosen.

President of Senate. The Vice-President of the United States shall be president of the Senate, but shall have no vote, unless they be equally divided.

Officers. The Senate shall choose their other officers, and also a president *pro tempore*, in the absence of the Vice-President, or when he shall exercise the office of President of the United States.

Trials of Impeachment. The Senate shall have the sole power to try all impeachments: When sitting for that purpose, they shall be on oath or affirmation.

[1] Governor.

[2] The Speaker, who presides, is one of the representatives; the other officers — clerk, sergeant-at-arms, postmaster, chaplain, doorkeeper, etc. — are not.

When the President of the United States is tried, the Chief-Justice shall preside: and no person shall be convicted without the concurrence of two-thirds of the members present.

Judgment in Case of Conviction. Judgment in cases of impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honor, trust, or profit under the United States; but the party convicted shall nevertheless be liable and subject to indictment, trial, judgment, and punishment, according to law.

Section 4. Both Houses

Manner of electing Members. The times, places, and manner of holding elections for senators and representatives shall be prescribed in each State by the Legislature thereof; but the Congress may at any time, by law, make or alter such regulations, except as to the places of choosing senators.[1]

Meetings of Congress. The Congress shall assemble at least once in every year, and such meeting shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall by law appoint a different day.

Section 5. The Houses separately

Organization. Each house shall be the judge of the elections, returns, and qualifications of its own members, and a majority of each shall constitute a quorum to do business; but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the attendance of absent members, in such manner, and under such penalties, as each house may provide.

Rules. Each house may determine the rules of its proceedings, punish its members for disorderly behavior, and, with the concurrence of two-thirds, expel a member.

Journal. Each house shall keep a journal of its proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such parts as may in their judgment require secrecy, and the yeas and nays of the members of either house on any question shall, at the desire of one-fifth of those present, be entered on the journal.

Adjournment. Neither house, during the session of Congress, shall, without the consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other place than that in which the two houses shall be sitting.

Section 6. Privileges and Disabilities of Members

Pay and Privileges of Members. The senators and representatives shall receive a compensation for their services, to be ascertained by law, and paid out of the treasury of the United States. They shall in all cases, except treason, felony, and breach of the peace, be privileged from arrest during their

[1] This is to prevent Congress from fixing the places of meeting of the state legislatures.

attendance at the session of their respective houses, and in going to and returning from the same; and for any speech or debate in either house, they shall not be questioned in any other place.

Prohibitions on Members. No senator or representative shall, during the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil office under the authority of the United States, which shall have been created, or the emoluments whereof shall have been increased, during such time; and no person holding any office under the United States shall be a member of either house during his continuance in office.

Section 7. Method of passing Laws

Revenue Bills. All bills for raising revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives; but the Senate may propose or concur with amendments as on other bills.

How Bills become Laws. Every bill which shall have passed the House of Representatives and the Senate shall, before it become a law, be presented to the President of the United States; if he approve, he shall sign it, but if not, he shall return it, with his objections, to that house in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the objections at large on their journal, and proceed to reconsider it. If after such reconsideration, two-thirds of that house shall agree to pass the bill, it shall be sent, together with the objections, to the other house, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and if approved by two-thirds of that house, it shall become a law. But in all such cases the votes of both houses shall be determined by yeas and nays, and the names of the persons voting for and against the bill shall be entered on the journal of each house respectively. If any bill shall not be returned by the President within ten days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law, in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress by their adjournment prevent its return, in which case it shall not be a law.

Resolutions, etc. Every order, resolution, or vote to which the concurrence of the Senate and House of Representatives may be necessary (except on a question of adjournment) shall be presented to the President of the United States; and before the same shall take effect, shall be approved by him, or being disapproved by him, shall be repassed by two-thirds of the Senate and House of Representatives, according to the rules and limitations prescribed in the case of a bill.

Section 8. Powers granted to Congress

Powers of Congress. The Congress shall have power:

To lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises, to pay the debts and provide for the common defense and general welfare of the United States; but all duties, imposts, and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States;

To borrow money on the credit of the United States;

To regulate commerce with foreign nations, and among the several States, and with the Indian tribes;

To establish a uniform rule of naturalization, and uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcies throughout the United States;

To coin money, regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coin, and fix the standard of weights and measures;

To provide for the punishment of counterfeiting the securities and current coin of the United States;

To establish post-offices and post-roads;

To promote the progress of science and useful arts, by securing, for limited times, to authors and inventors the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries;

To constitute tribunals inferior to the Supreme Court;

To define and punish piracies and felonies committed on the high seas, and offenses against the law of nations;

To declare war, grant letters of marque and reprisal,[1] and make rules concerning captures on land and water;

To raise and support armies, but no appropriation of money to that use shall be for a longer term than two years;

To provide and maintain a navy;

To make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces;

To provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the Union, suppress insurrections and repel invasions;

To provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining the militia, and for governing such part of them as may be employed in the service of the United States, reserving to the States respectively the appointment of the officers, and the authority of training the militia according to the discipline prescribed by Congress;

To exercise exclusive legislation in all cases whatsoever over such district (not exceeding ten miles square) as may, by cession of particular States, and the acceptance of Congress, become the seat of the government of the United States,[2] and to exercise like authority over all places purchased by the consent of the Legislature of the State in which the same shall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dockyards, and other needful buildings; — And

Implied Powers. To make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this Constitution in the government of the United States, or in any department or officer thereof.[3]

[1] Letters granted by the government to private citizens in time of war, authorizing them, under certain conditions, to capture the ships of the enemy.

[2] The District of Columbia.

[3] This is the famous elastic clause of the Constitution.

Section 9. Powers forbidden to the United States

Absolute Prohibitions on Congress. The migration or importation of such persons as any of the States now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight, but a tax or duty may be imposed on such importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each person.[1]

The privilege of the writ of habeas corpus[2] shall not be suspended, unless when in cases of rebellion or invasion the public safety may require it.

No bill of attainder[3] or ex-post-facto law[4] shall be passed.

No capitation or other direct tax shall be laid, unless in proportion to the census or enumeration hereinbefore directed to be taken. [Extended by Amendment XVI.]

No tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any State.

No preference shall be given by any regulation of commerce or revenue to the ports of one State over those of another; nor shall vessels bound to, or from, one State, be obliged to enter, clear, or pay duties in another.

No money shall be drawn from the treasury but in consequence of appropriations made by law; and a regular statement and account of the receipts and expenditures of all public money shall be published from time to time.

No title of nobility shall be granted by the United States: And no person holding any office of profit or trust under them, shall, without the consent of the Congress, accept of any present, emolument, office, or title, of any kind whatever, from any king, prince, or foreign state.

Section 10. Powers forbidden to the States

Absolute Prohibitions on the States. No State shall enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederation; grant letters of marque and reprisal; coin money; emit bills of credit; make anything but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts; pass any bill of attainder, ex-post-facto law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts, or grant any title of nobility.

Conditional Prohibitions on the States. No State shall, without the consent of the Congress, lay any imposts or duties on imports or exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing its inspection laws; and the net produce of all duties and imposts, laid by any State on imports or exports,

[1] This refers to the foreign slave trade. "Persons" means "slaves." In 1808 Congress prohibited the importation of slaves. This clause is, of course, no longer in force.

[2] An official document requiring an accused person who is in prison awaiting trial to be brought into court to inquire whether he may be legally held.

[3] A special legislative act by which a person may be condemned to death or to outlawry or banishment without the opportunity of defending himself which he would have in a court of law.

[4] A law relating to the punishment of acts committed before the law was passed.

shall be for the use of the treasury of the United States; and all such laws shall be subject to the revision and control of the Congress.

No State shall, without the consent of Congress, lay any duty of tonnage, keep troops, or ships-of-war, in time of peace, enter into any agreement or compact with another State, or with a foreign power, or engage in war, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent danger as will not admit of delay.

ARTICLE II. EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENT

Section 1. President and Vice-President

Term. The executive power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America. He shall hold his office during the term of four years, and, together with the Vice-President, chosen for the same term, be elected, as follows:

Electors. Each State shall appoint, in such manner as the Legislature thereof may direct, a number of electors, equal to the whole number of senators and representatives to which the State may be entitled in the Congress: but no senator or representative, or person holding an office of trust or profit under the United States, shall be appointed an elector.

Proceedings of Electors and of Congress. [[1] The electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for two persons, of whom one at least shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves. And they shall make a list of all the persons voted for, and of the number of votes for each; which list they shall sign and certify and transmit sealed to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the president of the Senate. The president of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted. The person having the greatest number of votes shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if there be more than one who have such majority, and have an equal number of votes, then the House of Representatives shall immediately choose by ballot one of them for President; and if no person have a majority, then from the five highest on the list the said house shall, in like manner, choose the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. In every case, after the choice of the President, the person having the greatest number of votes of the electors shall be the Vice-President. But if there should remain two or more who have equal votes, the Senate shall choose from them by ballot the Vice-President.]

[1] This paragraph in brackets has been superseded by the Twelfth Amendment.

Time of choosing Electors. The Congress may determine the time of choosing the electors, and the day on which they shall give their votes; which day shall be the same throughout the United States.[1]

Qualifications of President. No person except a natural born citizen, or a citizen of the United States at the time of the adoption of this Constitution, shall be eligible to the office of President; neither shall any person be eligible to that office who shall not have attained to the age of thirty-five years, and been fourteen years resident within the United States.

Vacancy. In case of the removal of the President from office, or of his death, resignation, or inability to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the Vice-President, and the Congress may by law provide for the case of removal, death, resignation, or inability, both of the President and Vice-President, declaring what officer shall then act as President; and such officer shall act accordingly until the disability be removed, or a President shall be elected.[2]

Salary. The President shall, at stated times, receive for his services a compensation which shall neither be increased nor diminished during the period for which he shall have been elected, and he shall not receive within that period any other emolument from the United States, or any of them.

Oath. Before he enter on the execution of his office, he shall take the following oath or affirmation: — "I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the office of President of the United States, and will, to the best of my ability, preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution of the United States."

Section 2. Powers of the President

Military Powers; Reprieves and Pardons. The President shall be commander-in-chief of the army and navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several States, when called into the actual service of the United States; he may require the opinion, in writing, of the principal officer in each of the executive departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices; and he shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offenses against the United States, except in cases of impeachment.

Treaties; Appointments. He shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to make treaties, provided two-thirds of the senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and by and with the advice and consent of the Senate shall appoint ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, judges of the Supreme Court, and all other officers of the United

[1] The electors are chosen on the Tuesday next after the first Monday in November, preceding the expiration of a presidential term. They vote (by Act of Congress of February 3, 1887) on the second Monday in January for President and Vice-President. The votes are counted, and declared in Congress on the second Wednesday of the following February.

[2] This has now been provided for by the Presidential Succession Act of 1886.

States, whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law: but the Congress may by law vest the appointment of such inferior officers, as they think proper, in the President alone, in the courts of law, or in the heads of departments.

Filling of Vacancies. The President shall have power to fill up all vacancies that may happen during the recess of the Senate, by granting commissions which shall expire at the end of their next session.

Section 3. Duties of the President

Message; Convening of Congress. He shall from time to time give to the Congress information [1] of the state of the Union, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary occasions, convene both houses, or either of them, and in case of disagreement between them with respect to the time of adjournment, he may adjourn them to such time as he shall think proper; he shall receive ambassadors and other public ministers; he shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed, and shall commission all the officers of the United States.

Section 4. Impeachment

Removal of Officers. The President, Vice-President, and all civil officers of the United States, shall be removed from office on impeachment for, and conviction of, treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors.

ARTICLE III. JUDICIAL DEPARTMENT

Section 1. United States Courts

Courts established; Judges. The judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one Supreme Court, and in such inferior courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The judges, both of the Supreme and inferior courts, shall hold their offices during good behavior, and shall, at stated times, receive for their services a compensation which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office.

Section 2. Jurisdiction of United States Courts

Federal Courts in General. The judicial power shall extend to all cases, in law and equity, arising under this Constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made, or which shall be made, under their authority; — to all cases

[1] The president gives this information through a message to Congress at the opening of each session. Washington and John Adams read their messages in person to Congress. Jefferson, however, sent a written message to Congress. This method was followed until President Wilson returned to the earlier custom.

affecting ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls; — to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction; — to controversies to which the United States shall be a party; — to controversies between two or more States; — between a State and citizens of another State;[1] — between citizens of different States; — between citizens of the same State claiming lands under grants of different States, and between a State, or the citizens thereof, and foreign states, citizens or subjects.

Supreme Court. In all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, and those in which a State shall be party, the Supreme Court shall have original jurisdiction. In all other cases before mentioned, the Supreme Court shall have appellate jurisdiction, both as to law and fact, with such exceptions and under such regulations as the Congress shall make.

Trials. The trial of all crimes, except in cases of impeachment, shall be by jury; and such trial shall be held in the State where the said crimes shall have been committed; but when not committed within any State, the trial shall be at such place or places as the Congress may by law have directed.

Section 3. Treason

Treason defined. Treason against the United States shall consist only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort.

No person shall be convicted of treason unless on the testimony of two witnesses to the same overt act, or on confession in open court.

Punishment. The Congress shall have power to declare the punishment of treason, but no attainder of treason shall work corruption of blood, or forfeiture, except during the life of the person attainted.

ARTICLE IV. RELATIONS OF THE STATES TO EACH OTHER

Section 1. Official Acts

Full faith and credit shall be given in each State to the public acts, records, and judicial proceedings of every other State. And the Congress may by general laws, prescribe the manner in which such acts, records, and proceedings shall be proved, and the effect thereof.

Section 2. Privileges of Citizens

The citizens of each State shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several States.

Fugitives from Justice. A person charged in any State with treason, felony, or other crime, who shall flee from justice, and be found in another State,

[1] This has been modified by the Eleventh Amendment.

shall, on demand of the executive authority of the State from which he fled, be delivered up, to be removed to the State having jurisdiction of the crime.

Fugitive Slaves. No person[1] held to service or labor in one State, under the laws thereof, escaping into another, shall, in consequence of any law or regulation therein, be discharged from such service or labor, but shall be delivered up on claim of the party to whom such service or labor may be due.

Section 3. New States and Territories

Admission of States. New States may be admitted by the Congress into this Union; but no new State shall be formed or erected within the jurisdiction of any other State; nor any State be formed by the junction of two or more States, or parts of States, without the consent of the Legislatures of the States concerned as well as of the Congress.

Territory and Property of United States. The Congress shall have power to dispose of and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this Constitution shall be so construed as to prejudice any claims of the United States, or of any particular State.

Section 4. Protection of the States

The United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a republican form of government, and shall protect each of them against invasion, and on application of the Legislature, or of the Executive (when the Legislature cannot be convened) against domestic violence.

ARTICLE V. AMENDMENTS

How proposed; how ratified. The Congress, whenever two-thirds of both houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose amendments to this Constitution, or, on the application of the Legislatures of two-thirds of the several States, shall call a convention for proposing amendments, which, in either case, shall be valid to all intents and purposes, as part of this Constitution, when ratified by the Legislatures of three-fourths of the several States, or by conventions in three-fourths thereof, as the one or the other mode of ratification may be proposed by the Congress; provided that no amendment which

[1] "Person" here includes slave. This was the basis of the Fugitive Slave Laws of 1793 and 1850. It is now superseded by the Thirteenth Amendment, by which slavery is prohibited.

may be made prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight shall in any manner affect the first and fourth clauses in the ninth section of the first article; and that no State, without its consent, shall be deprived of its equal suffrage in the Senate.

ARTICLE VI. GENERAL PROVISIONS

Public Debt. All debts contracted, and engagements entered into, before the adoption of this Constitution, shall be as valid against the United States under this Constitution, as under the Confederation.

Supremacy of Constitution. This Constitution, and the laws of the United States which shall be made in pursuance thereof; and all treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme law of the land; and the judges in every State shall be bound thereby, anything in the Constitution or laws of any State to the contrary notwithstanding.

Official Oath; Religious Test. The senators and representatives before mentioned, and the members of the several State Legislatures, and all executive and judicial officers, both of the United States and of the several States, shall be bound by oath or affirmation to support this Constitution; but no religious test shall ever be required as a qualification to any office or public trust under the United States.

ARTICLE VII. RATIFICATION OF THE CONSTITUTION

Ratification. The ratification of the Conventions of nine States shall be sufficient for the establishment of this Constitution between the States so ratifying the same.

Done in convention, by the unanimous consent of the States present, the seventeenth day of September, in the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and eighty-seven, and of the independence of the United States of America the twelfth.

In witness whereof, we have hereunto subscribed our names.[1]

GEORGE WASHINGTON,
President, and Deputy from Virginia.

[1] There were sixty-five delegates chosen to the convention: ten did not attend; sixteen declined or failed to sign; thirty-nine signed. Rhode Island sent no delegates.

NEW HAMPSHIRE
JOHN LANGDON
NICHOLAS GILMAN

MASSACHUSETTS
NATHANIEL GORHAM
RUFUS KING

CONNECTICUT
WILLIAM SAMUEL JOHNSON
ROGER SHERMAN

NEW YORK
ALEXANDER HAMILTON

NEW JERSEY
WILLIAM LIVINGSTON
DAVID BREARLEY
WILLIAM PATERSON
JONATHAN DAYTON

PENNSYLVANIA
BENJAMIN FRANKLIN
THOMAS MIFFLIN
ROBERT MORRIS
GEORGE CLYMER
THOMAS FITZSIMONS
JARED INGERSOLL
JAMES WILSON
GOUVERNEUR MORRIS

DELAWARE
GEORGE READ
GUNNING BEDFORD, JR.
JOHN DICKINSON
RICHARD BASSETT
JACOB BROOM

MARYLAND
JAMES M'HENRY
DANIEL OF ST. THOMAS JENIFER
DANIEL CARROLL

VIRGINIA
JOHN BLAIR
JAMES MADISON, JR.

NORTH CAROLINA
WILLIAM BLOUNT
RICHARD DOBBS SPAIGHT
HUGH WILLIAMSON

SOUTH CAROLINA
JOHN RUTLEDGE
CHARLES C. PINCKNEY
CHARLES PINCKNEY
PIERCE BUTLER

GEORGIA
WILLIAM FEW
ABRAHAM BALDWIN

Attest: WILLIAM JACKSON, *Secretary*

AMENDMENTS

Religion, Speech, Press, Assembly, Petition. ARTICLE I.[1] Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the government for redress of grievances.

Militia. ARTICLE II. A well-regulated militia being necessary to the security of a free State the right of the people to keep and bear arms shall not be infringed.

Soldiers. ARTICLE III. No soldier shall, in time of peace, be quartered in any house, without the consent of the owner; nor in time of war but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

Unreasonable Searches. ARTICLE IV. The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no warrants shall issue, but upon

[1] These amendments were proposed by Congress and ratified by the legislatures of the several states, pursuant to the fifth article of the Constitution. The first ten were offered in 1789 and adopted before the close of 1791. They were for the most part the work of Madison. They are frequently called the Bill of Rights, as their purpose is to guard more efficiently the rights of the people and of the states.

probable cause, supported by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

Criminal Prosecutions. ARTICLE V. No person shall be held to answer for a capital, or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia, when in actual service in time of war and public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offense to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use, without just compensation.

ARTICLE VI. In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the State and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor, and to have the assistance of counsel for his defense.

Suits at Common Law. ARTICLE VII. In suits at common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved, and no fact tried by a jury shall be otherwise reëxamined in any court of the United States than according to the rules of common law.

Bail, Punishments. ARTICLE VIII. Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

Reserved Rights and Powers. ARTICLE IX. The enumeration in the Constitution of certain rights shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

ARTICLE X. The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people.

Suits against States. ARTICLE XI.[1] The judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity, commenced or prosecuted against any of the United States by citizens of another State, or by citizens or subjects of any foreign state.

Method of electing President and Vice-President. ARTICLE XII.[2] The electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for President and Vice-President, one of whom, at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves; they shall name in their ballots the person voted for as President, and in distinct ballots the person voted for as Vice-President; and they shall make distinct lists of all persons voted for as President, and of all persons voted for as Vice-President, and of the number of votes for each, which list they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the president of the Senate; —

[1] Proposed in 1794; adopted in 1798. [2] Adopted in 1804.

the president of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted; — the person having the greatest number of votes for President, shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have such majority, then from the persons having the highest numbers not exceeding three on the list of those voted for as President, the House of Representatives shall choose immediately, by ballot, the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. And if the House of Representatives shall not choose a President whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the fourth day of March next following, then the Vice-President shall act as President, as in the case of the death or other constitutional disability of the President. The person having the greatest number of votes as Vice-President, shall be the Vice-President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have a majority, then from the two highest numbers on the list, the Senate shall choose the Vice-President; a quorum for the purpose shall consist of two-thirds of the whole number of senators, and a majority of the whole number shall be necessary to a choice. But no person constitutionally ineligible to the office of President shall be eligible to that of Vice-President of the United States.

Slavery abolished. ARTICLE XIII.[1] *Section 1.* Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime, whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdiction.

Section 2. Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

Negroes made Citizens. ARTICLE XIV.[2] *Section 1.* All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law, nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.

Section 2. Representatives shall be apportioned among the several States according to their respective numbers, counting the whole number of persons in each State, excluding Indians not taxed. But when the right to vote at any election for the choice of electors for President and Vice-President of the United States, representatives in Congress, the executive or judicial officers of a State, or the members of the Legislature thereof, is denied to any of the male inhabitants of such State, being twenty-one years of age, and citizens of

[1] Adopted in 1865. [2] Adopted in 1868.

the United States, or in any way abridged, except for participation in rebellion or other crime, the basis of representation therein shall be reduced in the proportion which the number of such male citizens shall bear to the whole number of male citizens twenty-one years of age in such State.

Section 3. No person shall be a senator or representative in Congress, or elector of President or Vice-President, or hold any office, civil or military, under the United States, or under any State, who having previously taken an oath as a member of Congress, or as an officer of the United States, or as a member of any State Legislature, or as an executive or judicial officer of any State, to support the Constitution of the United States, shall have engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the same, or given aid or comfort to the enemies thereof. But Congress may, by a vote of two-thirds of each house, remove such disability.

Section 4. The validity of the public debt of the United States, authorized by law, including debts incurred for payment of pensions and bounties for services in suppressing insurrection or rebellion, shall not be questioned. But neither the United States nor any State shall assume or pay any debt or obligation incurred in aid of insurrection or rebellion against the United States, or any claim for the loss or emancipation of any slave; but all such debts, obligations, and claims shall be held illegal and void.

Section 5. The Congress shall have power to enforce, by appropriate legislation, the provisions of this article.

Negroes made Voters. ARTICLE XV.[1] *Section 1.* The rights of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States, or by any State, on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

Section 2. The Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

Income Tax. ARTICLE XVI.[2] The Congress shall have power to lay and collect taxes on incomes from whatever source derived, without apportionment among the several States, and without regard to any census or enumeration.

ARTICLE XVII.[2] The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two Senators from each State, elected by the people thereof for six years; and each Senator shall have one vote. The electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State Legislatures.

Direct Election of Senators. When vacancies happen in the representation of any State in the Senate, the executive authority of such State shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies: Provided, that the Legislature of any State may empower the Executive thereof to make temporary appointments until the people fill the vacancies by election as the Legislature may direct.

This amendment shall not be so construed as to affect the election or term of any Senator chosen before it becomes valid as part of the Constitution.

[1] Adopted in 1870. [2] Ratified in 1913.

National Prohibition. ARTICLE XVIII.[1] *Section 1.* After one year from the ratification of this article the manufacture, sale, or transportation of intoxicating liquors within, the importation thereof into, or the exportation thereof from the United States and all territory subject to the jurisdiction thereof for beverage purposes is hereby prohibited.

Section 2. The Congress and the several States shall have concurrent power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

Section 3. This article shall be inoperative unless it shall have been ratified as an amendment to the Constitution by the Legislatures of the several States, as provided in the Constitution, within seven years from the date of the submission hereof to the States by the Congress.

Woman Suffrage. ARTICLE XIX.[2] *Section 1.* The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of sex.

Section 2. Congress shall have power, by appropriate legislation, to enforce the provisions of this article.

[1] Ratified in 1919. [2] Ratified in 1920.

DIGEST OF THE CONSTITUTION

THE CONSTITUTION

1. Congresses and acts that led to the Constitution

- *a.* New England Confederacy, 1643
- *b.* Leisler's American Congress, 1690
- *c.* Albany Convention, 1754
- *d.* Stamp Act Congress, 1765
- *e.* Committees of Correspondence, 1773
- *f.* First Continental Congress, 1774
- *g.* Second Continental Congress, 1775
- *h.* Revolutionary government of the Continental Congress, 1775–1781
- *i.* Declaration of Independence, 1776
- *j.* Formation of state constitutions, 1776–1780
- *k.* Articles of Confederation adopted by Congress and referred to the states, 1777
- *l.* Articles of Confederation in effect, 1781
- *m.* Annapolis Convention, 1786
- *n.* Constitutional Convention, 1787

2. Defects of the Articles of Confederation that led to the Constitution

- *a.* Lack of executive power
  - No president to execute the laws
- *b.* Lack of a judiciary
  - No national courts or judges
- *c.* Defective organization of Congress
  - (1) A single house
  - (2) Debates held in secret
  - (3) Members elected and paid by the states
  - (4) Each state might have seven members
  - (5) Each state must have two members
  - (6) Each state cast a single vote in Congress
  - (7) Vote of nine states required to enact a law
- *d.* Lack of power of Congress over revenue
  - (1) Congress had no power to raise revenue
  - (2) Congress could not collect money by taxation
- *e.* Lack of power of Congress to regulate commerce
  - (1) No freedom of trade between the states
  - (2) In foreign trade some states wished free trade, others a protective tariff
  - (3) States made selfish and unwise tariff laws
- *f.* Lack of power to enforce order
  - Congress had no power over any army or militia

3. Provisions of the Constitution for the United States

- *a.* Legislative department
  - (1) House of Representatives
  - (2) Senate
- *b.* Executive department: The president
- *c.* Judicial department
  - (1) United States judges
  - (2) United States courts

THE CONSTITUTION (*continued*)

4. Provisions of the Constitution for the House of Representatives

- *a.* Manner of election: By the people of the states
- *b.* Term of office: Two years
- *c.* Qualifications of members
  - (1) Twenty-five years of age
  - (2) Seven years a citizen of the United States
  - (3) Inhabitant of state where elected
- *d.* Apportionment
  - (1) Among the states according to population
  - (2) Not to exceed one for every 30,000 population
  - (3) Each state must have at least one representative
- *e.* Census every ten years
- *f.* Officers: House elects its own officers
- *g.* Powers
  - (1) It originates revenue bills
  - (2) It brings in charges of impeachment
  - (3) It elects the president if the Electoral College fails to do so

5. Provisions of the Constitution for the Senate

- *a.* Number: Two from each state
- *b.* Manner of election: By direct vote of the people
- *c.* Term of office: Six years
- *d.* Qualifications of members
  - (1) Thirty years of age
  - (2) Nine years a citizen of the United States
  - (3) Inhabitant of state where elected
- *e.* Presiding officer
  - (1) Vice president of the United States, who has no vote except in case of a tie
  - (2) In absence of vice president Senate elects a presiding officer pro tempore (for the time being)
- *f.* Powers
  - (1) Its consent necessary to the passage of bills
  - (2) While it cannot originate revenue bills it does frequently amend them
  - (3) It takes part in the appointing power by confirming or rejecting nominations of the president
  - (4) It accepts or rejects treaties. Its approval necessary
  - (5) It acts as a court to try cases of impeachment

6. Provisions of the Constitution for Congress

- *a.* Time of meeting
  - Every year on first Monday in December
- *b.* Quorum: Majority
- *c.* Each house determines its rule of procedure
- *d.* Each house keeps a journal
- *e.* Neither house may adjourn for more than three days without the consent of the other
- *f.* The method of passing laws

THE CONSTITUTION (*continued*)

7. The Constitution gives Congress power to

- *a.* Lay and collect taxes, duties, imports, and excises
- *b.* Pay debts and provide for the common defense
- *c.* Borrow money
- *d.* Regulate commerce
- *e.* Establish a rule of naturalization
- *f.* Pass laws on bankruptcy
- *g.* Coin money
- *h.* Punish counterfeiting
- *i.* Establish post offices and post roads
- *j.* Provide for copyrights and patents
- *k.* Declare war
- *l.* Raise and support armies
- *m.* Maintain a navy
- *n.* Pass laws necessary for carrying out the foregoing powers

8. The Constitution forbids the United States to

- *a.* Prohibit the importation of slaves before 1808
- *b.* Suspend the writ of habeas corpus except in war
- *c.* Pass bills of attainder or ex-post-facto laws
- *d.* Lay an export duty
- *e.* Grant titles of nobility

9. The Constitution forbids any state to

- Make a treaty, alliance, or confederation
- Grant letters of marque and reprisal
- Coin money or emit bills of credit
- Pass any bill of attainder or ex-post-facto law
- Pass any law impairing the obligation of contracts
- Grant any title of nobility
- Lay any duty of tonnage without consent of Congress
- Keep troops or ships of war, without consent of Congress, in time of peace
- Engage in war unless actually invaded

10. The Constitution provides that

- New states may be admitted
- Every state shall have a Republican form of government
- Amendments may be made
- The Constitution shall be the supreme law of the land

11. Provisions of the Constitution for the president

- *a.* Term of office: Four years
- *b.* Manner of election
  - By presidential electors chosen by the people of the several states
- *c.* Qualifications for office
  - (1) Natural-born citizen of the United States
  - (2) Thirty-five years of age
  - (3) Fourteen years resident in the United States
- *d.* Oath of office
  - To support the Constitution of the United States

THE CONSTITUTION (*continued*)

12. Provisions of the Constitution as to powers of the president

- *a.* Commander in chief of
  - (1) Army
  - (2) Navy
  - (3) Militia in the service of the United States
- *b.* Reprieves and pardons, except in case of impeachment
- *c.* With consent of Senate
  - (1) Make treaties
  - (2) Appoint
    - Ambassadors
    - Ministers
    - Consuls
    - United States judges
    - Other officers
- *d.* Duties
  - (1) Send messages to Congress
  - (2) Call extra sessions of Congress
  - (3) Receive ambassadors
  - (4) Execute the laws
  - (5) Commission officers of the United States

13. Provisions of the Constitution for the Judiciary

- *a.* Appointment
  - By the president, with consent of the Senate
- *b.* Number: Fixed by Congress
- *c.* Term of office: During good behavior

14. Provisions of the Constitution for Federal courts

- *a.* Supreme Court
- *b.* Inferior courts which Congress may establish from time to time

15. Cases tried in the United States courts

- *a.* Cases to which the Constitution and laws of the United States apply
- *b.* Cases affecting ambassadors, public ministers, consuls, or representatives of other nations in the United States
- *c.* Cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction
- *d.* Cases to which the United States may be a party
- *e.* Cases between two or more states, between citizens of different states, between citizens of the same state claiming lands by grants of different states, between a state or its citizens and a foreign state or its citizens

TABLE OF PRESIDENTS AND VICE PRESIDENTS

President	Born in	Nominated by	Elected from	Years of Service	Died	Vice President
George Washington	Virginia, 1732	People as a whole	Virginia	1789–1797	1799	John Adams
John Adams	Massachusetts, 1735	Federalists	Massachusetts	1797–1801	1826	Thomas Jefferson
Thomas Jefferson	Virginia, 1743	Democratic-Republicans[1]	Virginia	1801–1809	1826	Aaron Burr, 1st term George Clinton, 2d term
James Madison	Virginia, 1751	Democratic-Republicans	Virginia	1809–1817	1836	George Clinton, 1st term Elbridge Gerry, 2d term
James Monroe	Virginia, 1758	Democratic-Republicans	Virginia	1817–1825	1831	Daniel D. Tompkins
John Quincy Adams	Massachusetts, 1767	Democratic-Republicans[1]	Massachusetts	1825–1829	1848	John C. Calhoun
Andrew Jackson	South Carolina, 1767	Democrats	Tennessee	1829–1837	1845	John C. Calhoun, 1st term Martin Van Buren, 2d term
Martin Van Buren	New York, 1782	Democrats	New York	1837–1841	1862	Richard M. Johnson
William Henry Harrison	Virginia, 1773	Whigs	Ohio	1841 (one month)	1841	John Tyler
John Tyler	Virginia, 1790	Whigs	Virginia	1841–1845	1862	
James K. Polk	North Carolina, 1795	Democrats	Tennessee	1845–1849	1849	George M. Dallas
Zachary Taylor	Virginia, 1784	Whigs	Louisiana	1849–1850	1850	Millard Fillmore
Millard Fillmore	New York, 1800	Whigs	New York	1850–1853	1874	
Franklin Pierce	New Hampshire, 1804	Democrats	New Hampshire	1853–1857	1869	William R. King
James Buchanan	Pennsylvania, 1791	Democrats	Pennsylvania	1857–1861	1868	John C. Breckenridge
Abraham Lincoln	Kentucky, 1809	Republicans	Illinois	1861–1865	1865	Hannibal Hamlin, 1st term Andrew Johnson, 2d term
Andrew Johnson	North Carolina, 1808	Republicans	Tennessee	1865–1869	1875	
Ulysses S. Grant	Ohio, 1822	Republicans	Illinois	1869–1877	1885	Schuyler Colfax, 1st term Henry Wilson, 2d term
Rutherford B. Hayes	Ohio, 1822	Republicans	Ohio	1877–1881	1893	William A. Wheeler
James A. Garfield	Ohio, 1831	Republicans	Ohio	1881 (six months)	1881	Chester A. Arthur
Chester A. Arthur	Vermont, 1830	Republicans	New York	1881–1885	1886	
Grover Cleveland	New Jersey, 1837	Democrats	New York	1885–1889	1908	Thomas A. Hendricks
Benjamin Harrison	Ohio, 1833	Republicans	Indiana	1889–1893	1901	Levi P. Morton
Grover Cleveland	New Jersey, 1837	Democrats	New York	1893–1897	1908	Adlai E. Stevenson
William McKinley	Ohio, 1843	Republicans	Ohio	1897–1901	1901	Garret A. Hobart, 1st term Theodore Roosevelt, 2d term
Theodore Roosevelt	New York, 1858	Republicans	New York	1901–1909	1919	Charles W. Fairbanks, 2d term
William H. Taft	Ohio, 1857	Republicans	Ohio	1909–1913		James S. Sherman
Woodrow Wilson	Virginia, 1856	Democrats	New Jersey	1913–1921		Thomas R. Marshall
Warren G. Harding	Ohio, 1865	Republicans	Ohio	1921–		Calvin Coolidge

[1] None of the candidates having a majority, the choice of president devolved upon the House of Representatives.

TABLE OF STATES

No.	Name of State	Date of Settlement	Date of Admission
1	Delaware	1638	1787
2	Pennsylvania	1683	1787
3	New Jersey	1617	1787
4	Georgia	1733	1788
5	Connecticut	1633	1788
6	Massachusetts	1620	1788
7	Maryland	1634	1788
8	South Carolina	1670	1788
9	New Hampshire	1623	1788
10	Virginia	1607	1788
11	New York	1614	1788
12	North Carolina	1663	1789
13	Rhode Island	1636	1790
14	Vermont	1724	1791
15	Kentucky	1774	1792
16	Tennessee	1769	1796
17	Ohio	1788	1803
18	Louisiana	1700	1812
19	Indiana	1792	1816
20	Mississippi	1716	1817
21	Illinois	1682	1818
22	Alabama	1702	1819
23	Maine	1625	1820
24	Missouri	1719	1821
25	Arkansas	1670	1836
26	Michigan	1670	1837
27	Florida	1565	1845
28	Texas	1685	1845
29	Iowa	1833	1846
30	Wisconsin	1669	1848
31	California	1769	1850
32	Minnesota	1819	1858
33	Oregon	1811	1859
34	Kansas	1854	1861
35	West Virginia		1863
36	Nevada	1850	1864
37	Nebraska	1847	1867
38	Colorado	1859	1876
39	North Dakota	1857	1889
40	South Dakota	1857	1889
41	Montana	1861	1889
42	Washington	1845	1889
43	Idaho	1862	1890
44	Wyoming	1867	1890
45	Utah	1847	1896
46	Oklahoma	1889	1906
47	New Mexico	1582	1912
48	Arizona	1580	1912

Territories and Possessions

Alaska	Porto Rico
Hawaii	Guam
District of Columbia	Tutuila Islands
Philippine Islands	Canal Zone
	Virgin Islands

LEADING DATES IN CONNECTION WITH THE HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES

(*Dates in italics to be memorized*)

1000 (about). The voyages of the Northmen.
1453. Fall of Constantinople (closing of trade routes).
1492. *Columbus discovers the New World.*
1493. Demarcation Line of the Pope.
1494. Demarcation Line agreed upon by Spain and Portugal.
1497. *The Cabots discover the mainland of North America.*
1507. The name "America" suggested by Waldseemüller.
1513. Ponce de León discovers Florida.
Balboa discovers the Pacific Ocean.
1519. Cortés conquers Mexico.
1521. Magellan discovers the Philippine Islands.
1524. Verrazano's voyage.
1525. Gomez visits the Hudson River.
1535. Cartier discovers the St. Lawrence River.
1539. De Soto begins his expedition.
1540. Coronado's expedition.
1541. De Soto reaches the Mississippi.
1558. Accession of Elizabeth.
1565. *The Spaniards settle St. Augustine, the oldest city in the United States.*
1578. Drake in the Pacific.
1582. The Spaniards found the city of Santa Fe.
1583. Gilbert on North Atlantic coast.
1584. Raleigh sends expedition to the eastern coast of America.
1588. Defeat of the Armada (beginnings of English colonization).
1604. French attempt settlement of Acadia.
1607. *The English settle Jamestown, the first permanent English settlement in America.*
1608. *The French found Quebec, the first permanent French settlement in America.*
1609. The Hudson River is explored by Henry Hudson for the Dutch.
Champlain's fight with the Iroquois.
1610. Hudson explores Hudson's Bay for England.
1614. *The Dutch take possession of New Netherland, later called New York.*
1619. *The first lawmaking assembly in America meets in Jamestown, Virginia.*
Negro slavery is introduced into Virginia.
1620. *The Pilgrims land at Plymouth.*
The *Mayflower* compact.
1626. The Dutch purchase Manhattan Island from the Indians.
1630. The settlement of Boston.
1634. Settlement of St. Marys, Maryland.
1636. Settlement of Providence by Roger Williams.
1637. The Pequot War.
1638. Swedes settle Delaware.
1639. The Connecticut constitution.
1642. Beginning of civil war in England.
1643. The first New England Confederation.
1649. *The passage of the Religious Toleration Act in Maryland.*
Execution of Charles I of England.
1660. The English Restoration.
1662. Connecticut granted charter.
1664. New Netherland is captured by the English; New Amsterdam becomes New York.
The union of the New Haven and Connecticut colonies.
1665. The "Duke's laws," of New York.

1669. The French begin the exploration of the West.
1670. Settlement of Charleston, South Carolina.
1673. Jolliet and Father Marquette begin their famous journey.
1675. King Philip's War.
1676. The Bacon rebellion in Virginia.
1681. Charter of Pennsylvania granted.
1682. La Salle explores the Mississippi River.
1683. Governor Dongan calls the first legislative assembly in New York.
William Penn settles Philadelphia.
1688. Flight of James II of England (English Revolution).
1689. King William's War (1689–1697).
1692. The Salem witchcraft.
1699. The founding of Louisiana.
1701. Settlement of Mobile by the French.
1702. Queen Anne's War (1702–1713).
1704. First newspaper in America (*Boston News-Letter*).
1713. Treaty of Utrecht (Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, and Hudson Bay ceded to England).
1718. The French settle New Orleans.
1733. The English settle Georgia.
1744. King George's War (1744–1748).
1754. The last or fourth French and Indian War (1754–1763).
The Albany Convention.
1755. The defeat of Braddock.
1758. The English take Fort Duquesne.
1759. *The English under Wolfe capture Quebec.*
1761. Otis's speech on writs of assistance.
1763. *Treaty of Peace at Paris. Canada ceded to Great Britain.*
Pontiac's War.
1765. The Stamp Act passed by Parliament.
The Stamp Act Congress (Patrick Henry's resolutions).
1766. Repeal of the Stamp Act.
Declaratory Act.
1767. The Townshend Acts (colonial union).
1769. Steam engine invented.
1770. The Boston Massacre.
1773. The Boston Tea Party.
1774. *The First Continental Congress meets in Philadelphia* (September 5).
The Five Intolerable Acts.
1775. *Battles of Lexington and Concord* (April 19).
Second Continental Congress (May 10).
Washington appointed commander in chief (June 15).
Battle of Bunker Hill (June 17).
1776. *Declaration of Independence* (July 4).
1777. *Surrender of Burgoyne* (October 17).
1778. *France acknowledges the independence of the United States* (February 6).
The French alliance.
1781. *Surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown* (October 19).
Articles of Confederation ratified.
1783. *Treaty of Peace with Great Britain* (September 3).
1786. Annapolis Convention.
1787. *The Constitution adopted by the Federal Convention.*
Ordinance of the Northwest Territory.
1788. The states accept the Constitution.
1789. *The beginning of our government under the Constitution.*
1789–1791. First ten amendments (Bill of Rights).
1789–1797. *Washington president.*
1789. Formation of the cabinet.
Revenue tariff imposed.
1790. First census.
1791. First Bank of the United States.
1792. Gray enters the Columbia River.
1793. *The cotton gin invented by Whitney.*
Neutrality proclamation.
1794. The Whisky Rebellion.
1795. Jay's treaty with Great Britain.
1797–1801. *John Adams president.*
1798. The X Y Z papers.
The Alien and Sedition Laws.
Eleventh Amendment (suits against states).
Kentucky and Virginia resolutions.
1799. Death of Washington.
Peace with France.
1800. The city of Washington becomes the capital of the nation.
1801–1809. *Thomas Jefferson president.*
1801. War with Tripoli.
1803. *Purchase of Louisiana* (beginning of territorial expansion).
1804. Lewis and Clark expedition.
Twelfth Amendment (election of president and vice president).

1807. The embargo (national power over commerce).
Fulton's steamboat (August 11).
1808. Importation of slaves forbidden.
1809. Non-Intercourse Act.
1809–1817. *James Madison president.*
1811. Battle of Tippecanoe.
1812. *War against Great Britain* (neutral commerce and impressment).
1814. Hartford Convention.
The British capture Washington.
Peace treaty with Great Britain signed at Ghent (December 24).
1815. Jackson defeats British at New Orleans (January 8).
1815–1824. Era of good feeling.
1816. First Protective Tariff Act.
Second Bank of the United States.
1817–1825. *James Monroe president.*
1819. The purchase of Florida.
First steamship crosses the Atlantic.
1820. *The Missouri Compromise* (national prohibition of slavery).
1823. *The Monroe Doctrine.*
1824. Lafayette visits the United States.
1825–1829. *John Quincy Adams president.*
1825. The Erie Canal opened.
1828. The first railroad.
1829–1837. *Andrew Jackson president.*
1830. Great debate between Webster and Hayne.
1831. Beginning of the abolition movement.
1832. President Jackson vetoes the United States Bank Bill.
Nullification in South Carolina.
1833. Chicago founded.
1834. McCormick's reaper.
1835. Texas declared her independence of Mexico.
1837. Great financial panic.
1837–1841. *Martin Van Buren president.*
1839. Beginning of the express business.
1840. First line of steamships between Europe and America.
1841–1845. *William Henry Harrison president* (1841).
John Tyler president (1841–1845).
1842. Ashburton Treaty.
Dorr Rebellion.
1844. The electric telegraph invented.
1845. Annexation of Texas.
Discovery of ether.
1845–1849. *James K. Polk president.*
1845. Texas admitted to the Union.
1846. The Oregon question settled.
The sewing machine invented.
War declared against Mexico.
1847. City of Mexico captured.
1848. Peace treaty with Mexico signed (February 2).
Discovery of gold in California.
1849–1853. *Zachary Taylor president* (1849–1850).
Millard Fillmore president (1850–1853).
1850. The Omnibus Bill (slavery compromise).
Fugitive Slave Law.
1852. Rise of the Know-Nothing party.
1853–1857. *Franklin Pierce president.*
1853. Gadsden Purchase.
1854. Perry's treaty with Japan.
Kansas-Nebraska Act (repeal of Missouri Compromise).
Struggle for Kansas begun.
Origin of the Republican party.
1857–1861. *James Buchanan president.*
1857. *Dred Scott decision* (slavery restrictions annulled).
1858. First Atlantic cable.
The Lincoln-Douglas debate.
1859. John Brown's raid.
1860. Election of Lincoln.
Secession of South Carolina (December 20).
1861. *Establishment of the Southern Confederacy* (February 4).
Jefferson Davis elected president of the Confederacy.
1861–1869. *Abraham Lincoln president* (1861–1865).
Andrew Johnson president (1865–1869).
1861. Fall of Fort Sumter.
Battle of Bull Run (July 21).
The *Trent* affair.
1862. The *Monitor* and the *Merrimac* (March 9).
1863. *The Emancipation Proclamation* (January 1).
Battle of Gettysburg (July 1–3).
Fall of Vicksburg (July 4).
1865. *Lee surrenders* (April 9).
President Lincoln assassinated (April 14).
The Thirteenth Amendment (slavery forbidden).

1866. Laying of the Atlantic cable.
1867. Reconstruction Acts passed (Congress asserts its power).
Purchase of Alaska.
1868. Impeachment of President Johnson.
The Fourteenth Amendment (citizenship defined).
1869–1877. *Ulysses S. Grant president.*
1869. The Pacific Railroad completed.
1870. Weather Bureau established.
The Fifteenth Amendment (negro suffrage).
Reconstruction completed.
1871. Treaty of Washington.
1872. Alabama claims settled.
1873. Business crisis.
1876. Telephone and electric light exhibited at Centennial Exhibition.
1877. The Electoral Commission.
1877–1881. *Rutherford B. Hayes president.*
1877. Withdrawal of troops from the South.
Resumption of specie payment.
1881–1885. *James A. Garfield president* (1881).
Chester A. Arthur president (1881–1885).
1881. Assassination of President Garfield.
1883. Civil Service Reform Commission.
1885–1889. *Grover Cleveland president.*
1885. Civil Service Reform.
1886. Presidential Succession Act.
1887. Interstate Commerce Act (legislation on railroads).
1888. Introduction of Australian ballot.
1889–1893. *Benjamin Harrison president.*
1889. Opening of Oklahoma.
1890. Admission of Wyoming with full woman suffrage.
Sherman Silver Purchase Act.
1892. Chinese Exclusion Law.
1893–1897. *Grover Cleveland president.*
1893. The Columbian Exposition.
Great business crisis.
Bering Sea Commission.
Repeal of the Sherman Silver Purchase Act.
1894. Labor Day made a national holiday.
1896. Admission of Utah.
Venezuela question settled.
1897–1905. *William McKinley president* (1897–1901).
Theodore Roosevelt president (1901–1905).
1898. Destruction of the *Maine* (February 15).
1898. *War with Spain declared* (April 25).
Battle of Manila (May 1).
Annexation of Hawaii (July 7).
1899. Treaty of peace with Spain ratified (February 6).
1900. Gold Standard Act.
1901. Assassination of President McKinley.
1902. The Pacific cable to Manila.
1903. Department of Commerce and Labor established.
1904. Treaty with Panama.
1905–1909. *Theodore Roosevelt president.*
1906. The San Francisco disaster.
Admission of Oklahoma.
Intervention in Cuba.
1907. The Second Hague Conference.
The Crisis of 1907.
1909–1913. *William H. Taft president.*
1909. The Payne-Aldrich Tariff Act.
1910. The Reciprocity movement.
1912. Admission of New Mexico and Arizona.
1913–1921. *Woodrow Wilson president.*
1913. *The Sixteenth Amendment* (income tax).
The Seventeenth Amendment (direct election of United States senators by the people).
Federal Reserve Currency Act.
1914. *Beginning of the World War in Europe.*
1916. Federal Farm Loan Act.
1917. War with Germany.
War with Austria.
1918. Signing of the armistice.
1919. *The Eighteenth Amendment* (national prohibition).
1920. *The Nineteenth Amendment* (woman suffrage).

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

I. The Great Navigators

Early Voyages to America. St. Brendan

The Northmen
1. Voyages and settlements
2. Leif Ericson and Vinland
3. Results of the Norse voyages

Europe in the Fifteenth Century
1. Importance of the period
2. Conditions leading to exploration
   - *a.* Progress of education
   - *b.* Increase of geographical knowledge
   - *c.* Development of commerce
   - *d.* Need of new routes of commerce
   - *e.* Religious zeal
3. Trade between Europe and Asia
   - *a.* The Genoese route
   - *b.* The Venetian route
4. Interference of the Turks
5. Adventures of Marco Polo
6. Great inventions

Christopher Columbus
1. Birth and early education
2. His ideas of the earth
3. His religious zeal
4. At court of Portugal
5. At court of Spain
6. Assistance received

Voyage of Columbus
1. His fleet
2. Difficulties of the voyage
3. Discovery of land
4. Further discoveries
5. Belief of Columbus as to new land
6. Reception at home
7. Later voyages
8. Las Casas and the Indians
9. Results in Europe
   - *a.* Commerce
   - *b.* Colonies
   - *c.* Wars
   - *d.* Industrial life

Voyages of the Cabots
1. Discovery of North America
2. Extent of English claims resulting from these voyages

Portuguese Enterprise
1. Vasco da Gama
2. Cabral and Brazil
3. Effects of Da Gama's voyage on the fortunes of Columbus

Division of the World by the Pope
1. Reason for the division
2. Religious beliefs of the early great discoverers

How America was named

Further Discoveries
- 1. Balboa and the South Sea, or Pacific Ocean
- 2. Magellan's first voyage around the world
  - *a.* The cruise along South America
  - *b.* Discovery of the Strait
  - *c.* Naming the Pacific
  - *d.* Discovery of the Ladrones
  - *e.* Discovery of the Philippines
  - *f.* Return of the *Victoria* to Spain
  - *g.* Results

II. The Explorers

Spanish Explorations
- 1. Ponce de León
  - *a.* The magic fountain
  - *b.* Discovery of Florida
- 2. Cortés
  - *a.* Arrival in Mexico
  - *b.* The Aztecs
  - *c.* Conquest of Mexico
- 3. De Ayllón's expedition to Virginia
- 4. De Narváez
  - *a.* Expedition to Florida
  - *b.* Cabeza de Vaca
- 5. Coronado
  - *a.* Father Mark
  - *b.* The expedition
  - *c.* Canyon of the Colorado
  - *d.* "Seven cities of Cíbola"
  - *e.* The Zuñi pueblos
  - *f.* Santa Fe
- 6. De Soto
  - *a.* Conquest of Florida
  - *b.* Reaches the Mississippi
  - *c.* De Pineda
  - *d.* Río de Espíritu Santo
- 7. Extent of Spanish possessions
- 8. Claims of Spain
- 9. Motives of Spain
  - *a.* Religious
  - *b.* Gold-seeking
  - *c.* Love of adventure

French Explorations
- 1. Verrazano
  - *a.* Francis I of France
  - *b.* The voyage
  - *c.* The description of the coast
- 2. Cartier
  - *a.* Discovery of the St. Lawrence
  - *b.* Second voyage
  - *c.* Montreal
  - *d.* Newfoundland fisheries
- 3. De Monts
  - *a.* Acadia
  - *b.* Port Royal
- 4. Champlain
  - *a.* "Father of New France"
  - *b.* Founds Quebec, first permanent French settlement in America
  - *c.* Discovers Lake Champlain
  - *d.* Defeats the Iroquois
  - *e.* Results of this defeat

French Explorations (*continued*)
- 5. The French in Florida
  - *a.* Ribaut and Port Royal, South Carolina
  - *b.* Laudonnière and Fort Caroline, Florida
  - *c.* Menéndez destroys Fort Caroline
  - *d.* Menéndez founds St. Augustine for Spain
  - *e.* De Gourgues's revenge
- 6. Motives of France
  - *a.* Fisheries
  - *b.* Fur trade
  - *c.* Religious zeal
  - *d.* Missionary enterprise
  - *e.* Territory for France

English Explorations
- 1. English lack of interest
- 2. Frobisher and the Northwest Passage
- 3. Drake
  - *a.* His voyage
  - *b.* New Albion
  - *c.* Second circumnavigation of the world
- 4. Sir Humphrey Gilbert
  - *a.* His charter
  - *b.* Reasons for the expeditions
  - *c.* Three voyages
  - *d.* Newfoundland
- 5. Davis — Discovery of the Strait
- 6. Sir Walter Raleigh
  - *a.* First attempt at colonization. Roanoke
  - *b.* Gold-seekers, not colonists
  - *c.* Second attempt. Croatoan
  - *d.* War between England and France. The Armada
  - *e.* Results of colonizing effort
    - (1) Potato
    - (2) Tobacco
  - *f.* Name of Virginia
- 7. Gosnold and Cape Cod
- 8. Pring and Weymouth
- 9. Claims of England
- 10. Motives
  - *a.* Territory
  - *b.* Spirit of adventure
  - *c.* Rivalry with Spain
  - *d.* Beginning of English colonization spirit

Results of Spanish, French, and English Explorations at the End of the Sixteenth Century

Permanent Settlements by the Spanish and French

III. The Early Missionaries

The Early Missionaries
- 1. In Florida
  - *a.* The Jesuits
  - *b.* The Franciscans
- 2. In New France
  - *a.* The Récollets, or Franciscans
  - *b.* The Jesuits
- 3. The Huron missions
- 4. The Ottawa missions
- 5. The Maine missions
- 6. The zeal of the missionaries
- 7. Their sufferings and death

IV. The Indians

The Indians

1. Reason for the name
2. Personal appearance
3. The Indians of the West
4. The Pueblo Indians
5. The Cliff Dwellers
6. The Indians of the East
7. The so-called mound builders
8. Social condition
   - *a.* Dwellings
   - *b.* Food
   - *c.* Implements and weapons
   - *d.* Habits and mode of travel
   - *e.* Cruelty in war
   - *f.* Patience in suffering
   - *g.* Position of women
   - *h.* Character
   - *i.* Civilization
9. Religion
10. Organization
    - *a.* Family groups
    - *b.* Clan
    - *c.* Totem
    - *d.* Sachem
    - *e.* Tribe
    - *f.* Wampum
11. Number of Indians
12. Leading Indian families
    - *a.* Algonquian
    - *b.* Iroquoian
    - *c.* Muskhogean
    - *d.* Siouan
    - *e.* Shoshonean
    - *f.* Caddoan
    - *g.* Athapascan

V. Permanent Colonial Settlements

Virginia

1. Conditions leading to colonization
2. London and Plymouth companies
3. Provisions of the charter
4. The Popham colony in Maine
5. Settlement at Jamestown, first permanent English settlement in America
6. Lord Delaware and the second charter
7. Captain John Smith and Pocahontas
8. Governor Dale
9. Tobacco culture and its effects
10. Introduction of slavery
11. Indentured servants
12. Representative government
13. First representative assembly
14. Loss of charter. Governor Berkeley
15. The navigation laws
16. Virginia a royal colony
17. Bacon's rebellion

New Netherland
1. Verrazano and Gómez at the Hudson River
2. Hudson explores the river
3. The Dutch take possession of New Netherland
4. The position of Holland in the world's commerce
5. Settlement of Manhattan
6. The patroons
7. Peter Stuyvesant
8. The English seize the colony
9. The "Duke's laws"
10. Governor Dongan and the Charter of Liberties
11. The First American Congress
12. Leisler's rebellion
13. Royal colony

New Jersey
1. Settlement by the Dutch
2. Claimed by the English
3. East and West Jersey
4. Settlement of Elizabeth and Newark
5. Jersey united
6. Royal colony

Massachusetts; Plymouth Colony, 1620
1. The Pilgrims in England and Holland
2. The Pilgrims and the *Mayflower*
3. Landing at Plymouth
4. Treaty with the Indians
5. The town meeting
6. Absorbed by the Massachusetts Bay colony

Massachusetts; Massachusetts Bay Colony, 1630
1. The Puritans settle Salem
2. Settlement of Boston
3. Religious disturbances
4. Roger Williams
5. The New England Confederation
6. Persecution of the Quakers
7. King Philip's War
8. Salem witchcraft
9. Massachusetts loses her charter
10. Andros appointed governor
11. Plymouth colony absorbed
12. The new charter

New Hampshire, 1623
1. Grant to Gorges and Mason
2. Settlement of Dover and Portsmouth
3. Union of New Hampshire and Massachusetts
4. Royal province

Connecticut, 1634
1. The Dutch at Hartford
2. Emigration from Massachusetts
3. The Fundamental Orders
4. The New Haven settlement
5. The Pequot War
6. Andros overthrows the charter government
7. Regaining the charter

Maryland, 1634
1. Position of Catholics in England
2. Grant of Maryland to Calvert, Lord Baltimore
3. Settlement of St. Marys
4. The Toleration Act
5. Claiborne's rebellion
6. Baltimore loses his colony
7. Baltimore regains his colony
8. It becomes a royal colony
9. Act of Toleration finally repealed
10. Maryland restored to the Calverts

Rhode Island, 1636
1. Roger Williams founds Providence
2. Settlements of Portsmouth and Newport
3. Religious toleration

New Sweden, or Delaware, 1638
1. The Dutch on the Delaware
2. The Swedes found Fort Christina
3. The Dutch seize the colony
4. The colony is captured by the English
5. Purchased by William Penn
6. Governed as a part of Pennsylvania

The Carolinas, 1663
1. Grant of Carolina
2. Early settlement at Charleston
3. Locke's Fundamental Constitutions
4. Rice and indigo
5. Separation of North and South Carolina
6. Royal provinces

Pennsylvania, 1681
1. Grant to Penn
2. Frame of government
3. Newcastle and Philadelphia
4. Treaty with the Indians

Georgia, 1733
1. Grant to Oglethorpe
2. Ideas of Oglethorpe
3. Settlement of Savannah
4. Provisions of the charter
5. War with Spain
6. Royal colony

VI. French Explorations

The Missionaries
1. The Franciscans
2. The Jesuits

Jolliet and Marquette on the Mississippi

Robert de la Salle
1. Father Hennepin
2. Building the forts
3. Exploration of the Mississippi
4. Louisiana claimed for France

Foundations
1. Mobile
2. New Orleans
3. Duluth
4. Detroit
5. Vincennes

French and English Colonization compared

VII. Wars of the English and the French in America

- **King William's War (War of the League of Augsburg), 1689–1697**
  1. Attacks on towns in New England and New York
  2. Results

- **War of the Spanish Succession, or Queen Anne's War, 1702–1713**
  1. Deerfield
  2. Haverhill
  3. Port Royal
  4. Results

- **War of the Austrian Succession, or King George's War, 1744–1748**
  1. Louisburg
  2. Results

- **The Seven Years' War, or the French and Indian War, 1754–1763**
  1. Cause
  2. The French forts
  3. The Ohio Company
  4. Washington's journey
  5. The French at Fort Duquesne
  6. Albany convention
  7. Plan of campaign
  8. Five objective points
     - *a.* Fort Duquesne
     - *b.* Louisburg and Acadia
     - *c.* Crown Point and Ticonderoga
     - *d.* Capture of Niagara
     - *e.* Quebec
  9. Braddock's defeat
  10. Expulsion of Acadians
  11. Battle of Lake George
  12. Fort William Henry
  13. French reverses
     - *a.* Louisburg
     - *b.* Fort Duquesne
     - *c.* Niagara
  14. Fall of Quebec
  15. Results of the wars between the English and the French
  16. Conspiracy of Pontiac
  17. The Quebec Act
  18. The Proclamation Line of 1763

VIII. Life in the Colonies in 1763

The Colonists and England

- **Civil Government**
  1. Charter colonies
     - *a.* Massachusetts
     - *b.* Rhode Island
     - *c.* Connecticut
  2. Proprietary colonies
     - *a.* Pennsylvania
     - *b.* Delaware
     - *c.* Maryland

- **Civil Government** (*continued*)
  - 3. Royal colonies
    - *a.* New Hampshire
    - *b.* New York
    - *c.* New Jersey
    - *d.* Virginia
    - *e.* North and South Carolina
    - *f.* Georgia

The New England Colonies
The Middle Colonies
The Southern Colonies

IX. The Period of the Revolution

- **The American Revolution, I**
  - 1. Causes
    - *a.* Difference in ideas and conditions between England and the colonies in 1760
    - *b.* Taxation without representation
    - *c.* Taxation by England to pay the expenses of the French and Indian War and to maintain a standing army in America
    - *d.* Navigation Acts
    - *e.* Writs of Assistance
    - *f.* The Stamp Act
  - 2. The Stamp Act Congress
  - 3. The Declaratory Act
  - 4. The Townshend Acts
    - *a.* Provision for quartering royal troops
    - *b.* Trade laws
    - *c.* Taxes on glass, paper, tea, lead, and painters' colors
  - 5. The Boston Massacre
  - 6. The North Carolina Regulators
  - 7. The Boston Tea Party
  - 8. The Five Intolerable Acts
    - *a.* Boston Port Bill
    - *b.* Charter of Massachusetts changed
    - *c.* Trial of officers and soldiers in England
    - *d.* Quartering of troops
    - *e.* Quebec Act
  - 9. Committees of Correspondence
  - 10. First Continental Congress
- **The American Revolution, II**
  - 1. Capture of Fort William and Mary
  - 2. Battles of Lexington and Concord
  - 3. Ticonderoga and Crown Point
  - 4. Second Continental Congress
  - 5. Bunker Hill
  - 6. Washington commander in chief
  - 7. Expedition against Quebec
  - 8. English leave Boston
  - 9. Fort Moultrie
  - 10. Declaration of Independence
  - 11. Influence of *Common Sense*
  - 12. Plan of the British
  - 13. Campaign near New York
    - *a.* Battle of Long Island
    - *b.* British occupy New York
    - *c.* Fall of Fort Washington
    - *d.* Retreat through New Jersey

The American Revolution, II (*continued*)

14. Battle of Trenton
15. Robert Morris's great aid
16. Distress of the American troops
17. Campaign in the Middle States
    - *a.* Battle of Princeton
    - *b.* Battle of Brandywine
    - *c.* Howe takes Philadelphia
    - *d.* Battle of Germantown
    - *e.* Valley Forge
    - *f.* Conway Cabal
18. Burgoyne's expedition
    - *a.* Battle of Bennington
    - *b.* Fort Stanwix
    - *c.* Oriskany
    - *d.* Saratoga
    - *e.* Surrender
    - *f.* Important results
19. The French alliance

The American Revolution, III

1. The British retreat to Philadelphia
2. Battle of Monmouth
3. Stony Point
4. Indian warfare
    - *a.* Wyoming
    - *b.* Cherry valley
5. War in the West
    - *a.* George Rogers Clark
    - *b.* Father Gibault
    - *c.* Kaskaskia
    - *d.* Cahokia
    - *e.* Vincennes
    - *f.* Results
6. War on the ocean
    - *a.* Esek Hopkins
    - *b.* John Barry
    - *c.* John Paul Jones
7. War in the South
    - *a.* Fall of Savannah
    - *b.* Fall of Charleston
    - *c.* Camden and King's Mountain
    - *d.* Cowpens
    - *e.* Guilford Court House
    - *f.* Hobkirk's Hill
    - *g.* Eutaw Springs
8. Treason of Arnold
9. Surrender of Cornwallis
10. Treaty of Peace
11. The Northwest Territory
    - *a.* Basis of laws for our territories
    - *b.* Trial by jury
    - *c.* Slavery prohibited
    - *d.* Freedom of worship
    - *e.* Education encouraged
    - *f.* Civil liberty guaranteed
12. Independence acknowledged
13. Shays's Rebellion

The Constitution **(see Digest, Appendix, p. xxi)**

X. Physical Features of the United States

Three Geographical Regions
1. The Eastern Highland
2. The Central Plain
3. The Western Highland

Effect of Physical Features on the Settlement of the Country

The Resources of the United States

XI. The Period of Union

Washington's Administrations, 1789–1797
1. Political parties
2. Loose and strict construction
3. Payment of the debts
4. Federal bank and mint
5. Bishop Carroll
6. Admission of Vermont, Kentucky, and Tennessee
7. Indian troubles
8. Settlements on the Ohio
9. Whisky Rebellion
10. The cotton gin
11. First cotton mill
12. The French Revolution
13. "Citizen" Genêt
14. Jay's Treaty
15. Treaties with Spain and Algiers
16. Washington's farewell address

John Adams's Administration, 1797–1801
1. Trouble with France
2. X Y Z papers
3. Alien and Sedition Laws
4. Virginia and Kentucky resolutions
5. The new capital

Jefferson's Administrations, 1801–1809
1. The Democratic-Republican party in power
2. Ohio admitted
3. War on the African pirates
4. The Louisiana Purchase
5. Exploration of Lewis and Clark
6. The French and English War
7. Right of search
8. Embargo and non-intercourse
9. Fulton's steamboat

Madison's Administrations, 1809–1817
1. Trouble with Great Britain and France
2. Battle of Tippecanoe
3. Declaration of war
4. Causes of the war; "Free Trade and Sailors' Rights"
   - *a.* Impressment of American sailors
   - *b.* Violation of our rights of commerce by the Orders in Council
   - *c.* Blockade by English vessels of our ports and the search of our vessels
   - *d.* Urging the Indians to attack our frontier settlements
   - *e.* England was already really waging war on the United States, while the United States was at peace with her

Madison's Administrations, 1809–1817 (*continued*)

5. Hull's surrender
6. Battle of Queenstown Heights
7. The *Constitution* and the *Guerrière*
8. The *Chesapeake* and the *Shannon*
9. Raisin River massacre
10. Battle of Lake Erie
11. Battle of the Thames
12. Battle of Lake Champlain
13. Burning of Washington
14. Battle of New Orleans
15. Treaty of peace
16. The Hartford Convention

Monroe's Administrations, 1817–1825

1. Era of good feeling
2. Cession of Florida
3. The slavery question
4. Missouri Compromise of 1820
   - *a.* Missouri admitted as a slave state
   - *b.* Maine admitted as a free state
   - *c.* Slavery prohibited in Louisiana Purchase north of 36° 30′
5. The Monroe Doctrine
   - *a.* The Holy Alliance
     - (1) Russia
     - (2) Prussia
     - (3) France
     - (4) Austria
   - *b.* The revolt in South America
   - *c.* The Holy Alliance and the South American republics
   - *d.* Announcement of the Monroe Doctrine
6. Visit of Lafayette
7. Emigration to the West
8. The National Road

John Quincy Adams's Administration, 1825–1829

1. The tariff question
2. The Erie Canal
3. The steam railroad

Andrew Jackson's Administrations, 1829–1837

1. Removals from office
2. Nullification
3. Webster and Hayne debate
4. The abolition movement
5. Social reforms
6. Nat Turner rebellion
7. The right of petition
8. The contest over the United States Bank
9. Indian wars
10. Rise of American literature

Van Buren's Administration, 1837–1841

1. The crisis of 1837
2. State banks and wildcat money
3. The subtreasury plan
4. The anti-rent agitation in New York
5. The Mormons
6. The express business

- **Harrison's and Tyler's Administrations, 1841–1845**
  1. The Webster-Ashburton Treaty
  2. The Dorr rebellion
  3. The electric telegraph
  4. The clipper-ship era
  5. The annexation of Texas

- **Polk's Administration, 1845–1849**
  1. Settlement of Oregon
  2. War with Mexico
     - *a.* Palo Alto
     - *b.* Resaca de la Palma
     - *c.* Buena Vista
  3. Plan of campaign
  4. New Mexico and California
  5. Scott's march to the city of Mexico
     - *a.* Vera Cruz
     - *b.* Cerro Gordo
     - *c.* Puebla
     - *d.* Contreras
     - *e.* Churubusco
     - *f.* Molino del Rey
     - *g.* Chapultepec
     - *h.* Fall of the capital
  6. The peace treaty
  7. The Wilmot Proviso
  8. Inventions
     - *a.* Reaper
     - *b.* Sewing machine
  9. Discoveries
     - *a.* Goodyear process
     - *b.* Ether
  10. Great immigration from Europe
  11. The missions of California
  12. Discovery of gold in California

- **Taylor's and Fillmore's Administrations, 1849–1853**
  1. The Compromise of 1850, or the Omnibus Bill
     - *a.* Admission of California as a free state
     - *b.* Territorial governments for New Mexico and Utah
     - *c.* Payment to Texas
     - *d.* Prohibition of slave trade in District of Columbia
     - *e.* Fugitive Slave Law
  2. Personal Liberty Laws
  3. "Uncle Tom's Cabin"
  4. Gadsden Purchase

- **Pierce's Administration, 1853–1857**
  1. Kansas-Nebraska Act
  2. Rise of the Republican party
  3. Ostend Manifesto
  4. The struggle for Kansas
  5. Perry's expedition to Japan
  6. The Know-Nothings

- **Buchanan's Administration, 1857–1861**
  1. The Dred Scott decision
  2. Crisis of 1857
  3. Lincoln-Douglas debates
  4. John Brown's raid
  5. Beginnings of secession
  6. Formation of Confederacy

XII. The Period of Disunion

Lincoln's Administration, 1861–1865

1. Lincoln's inaugural
2. Fall of Sumter
3. Strength and weakness of the South
4. Condition of the North
5. The Border States
6. European hostility to the North
7. The Northern plan of the war
8. The call to arms
9. The war in 1861
   - *a.* Further secession
   - *b.* Battle of Bull Run, or Manassas
   - *c.* The war in Missouri
   - *d.* The blockade
   - *e.* The *Trent* affair
   - *f.* The privateers
10. The war in 1862
    - *a.* East
      - (1) The plan against Richmond
      - (2) The Peninsular Campaign
      - (3) Battle of Cedar Mountain
      - (4) Second Battle of Bull Run
      - (5) Antietam
      - (6) Fredericksburg
      - (7) *Monitor* and *Merrimac*, or *Virginia*
    - *b* West
      - (1) Forts Henry and Donelson
      - (2) Shiloh, or Pittsburg Landing
      - (3) Capture of New Orleans
      - (4) Perryville and Murfreesboro
11. Emancipation Proclamation
12. The Homestead Act
13. The war in 1863
    - *a.* East
      - (1) Chancellorsville
      - (2) Gettysburg
    - *b.* West: Vicksburg
    - *c.* Eastern Tennessee
      - (1) Chickamauga
      - (2) Chattanooga
14. The war in 1864
    - *a.* East
      - (1) Sherman's march to the sea
      - (2) Fall of Mobile
      - (3) Battles of the Wilderness
      - (4) Sheridan defeats Early
      - (5) Petersburg
    - *b.* West
      - (1) Sherman's march from Chattanooga to Atlanta
      - (2) Schofield at Franklin
      - (3) Thomas at Nashville
15. The war in 1865
    - *a.* Sherman at Goldsboro
    - *b.* Fall of Richmond
    - *c.* Lee's surrender
    - *d.* Cost of the war
    - *e.* Results of the war
16. Assassination of Lincoln
17. Chart of the Civil War

XIII. The Period of Reunion

Andrew Johnson's Administration, 1865–1869

1. Plans for reconstruction
2. The Thirteenth Amendment
3. Civil war in Mexico
4. The Civil Rights Act
5. The Fourteenth Amendment
6. The Freedmen's Bureau Act
7. The Reconstruction Acts
8. The Carpetbaggers and Ku-Klux Klan
9. The Tenure of Office Act
10. Impeachment of President Johnson
11. Atlantic telegraph cable
12. Purchase of Alaska

Grant's Administrations, 1869–1877

1. The *Alabama* claims
2. Civil-service reform
3. The transcontinental railroad
4. Great fires of Chicago and Boston
5. The Fifteenth Amendment
6. Era of scandals
7. The Weather Bureau
8. Crisis of 1873
9. Financial legislation
10. The Centennial Exposition
11. The Indian wars
12. The electoral commission

Hayes's Administration, 1877–1881

1. Withdrawal of Federal troops from the South
2. The Bell telephone
3. The electric light
4. The Eads jetties
5. Resumption of specie payment

XIV. The Period of Industrial Development

Garfield's and Arthur's Administrations, 1881–1885

1. Assassination of President Garfield
2. Revision of tariff
3. Civil-Service Act
4. The Chinese Exclusion Act
5. The Alien Contract Labor Law
6. Democrats regain power

Cleveland's Administration, 1885–1889

1. The Washington Monument
2. The Statue of Liberty
3. The Presidential Succession Act
4. The electoral count
5. Interstate commerce
6. Tariff discussion

Harrison's Administration, 1889–1893

1. Oklahoma
2. Admission of new states
3. Pan-American Congress
4. The McKinley Tariff Act
5. The Pension and Sherman Acts
6. The Homestead strike
7. Founding of Catholic University

Cleveland's Second Administration, 1893–1897

1. The Wilson Tariff Act
2. Hawaii
3. The Bering Sea question
4. The Venezuela question
5. The crisis of 1893
6. Repeal of the Sherman Act
7. Pullman strike
8. Repeal of the Federal Elections Act

McKinley's Administration, 1897–1901

1. The silver question
2. The Dingley Tariff Act
3. Destruction of the *Maine*
4. Declaration of war against Spain
5. Battle of Manila Bay
6. The Santiago campaign
7. Battles of El Caney and San Juan
8. Destruction of Cervera's fleet
9. Terms of peace
10. War in the Philippines
11. The Hague Conference
12. The Gold Standard Act
13. Freedom of trade with China

McKinley's and Roosevelt's Administrations, 1901–1905

1. The Pan-American Exposition
2. Assassination of President McKinley
3. Anthracite coal strike
4. Panama Canal
5. Department of commerce and labor
6. Louisiana Purchase Exposition

Roosevelt's Administration, 1905–1909

1. The San Francisco disaster
2. Admission of Oklahoma
3. The Railway Rate Act
4. The Meat Inspection Act
5. The Pure Food Act
6. Intervention in Cuba
7. The Hague Peace Conferences
8. The crisis of 1907

Taft's Administration, 1909–1913

1. The Payne-Aldrich Tariff Act
2. Two great celebrations
3. Admission of New Mexico and Arizona
4. Extension of conservation
5. Reciprocity movement

Wilson's Administrations, 1913–1921

1. The Sixteenth Amendment
2. The Seventeenth Amendment
3. The Department of Labor
4. The Underwood Tariff Act
5. The Federal Reserve Currency Act
6. The Keokuk Dam and Cape Cod Canal
7. The Panama Tolls Act
8. The Alaska railroad
9. The Clayton Anti-Trust Act
10. The Federal Trade Commission Law
11. The Initiative, Referendum, Recall, and Direct Primary
12. The commission form of government
13. Safeguarding the public health
14. Water supply for cities
15. The growth of electric traction
16. The Panama expositions
17. Development of the automobile industry
18. The New York Barge Canal
19. Record of American inventions
20. The Mexican civil war
21. The World War in Europe
22. The income tax
23. The Federal Farm Loan Act
24. Purchase of the Virgin Islands
25. The war with Germany and Austria
26. The signing of the armistice
27. The Eighteenth Amendment
28. The Nineteenth Amendment

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